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THE

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REMINISCENCES OF AMERICA IN 1869.

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a.c.

BY

TWO ENGLISHMEN.

QX c 10

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PREFACE.

MANY of the following chapters, the substance of which was collected during a prolonged sojourn in the United States, were originally written with a view to being delivered as lectures before a country audience. With scarcely any alterations these lecture-notes have been printed in their present form, so that we have to ask our readers to forgive the defects in style which are but too apparent, and to pardon the intrusion of matter which at first sight ought not to find a place among such notes as these.

We would take this opportunity of thanking many friends in England for their suggestions

and assistance in correcting these notes before they passed through the press, and of acknowledging the unvarying kindness which we received from Americans during our sojourn in their country.

LONDON,
April 28th, 1870.

INTRODUCTION.

THE purpose of the following pages is an endeavour to present to our readers an Englishman's view of the national life of the American in its various intellectual, political, and social characteristics, as well as of the most prominent features of his country. Such an attempt, we ventured to think, was never likely to be wholly unwelcome to our countrymen, and certainly the political complications which the late Civil War has bequeathed to the two nations give the subject of their mutual relations an enhanced interest, and tend to make a better knowledge and appreciation of the character of our transatlantic cousins a matter of almost national importance. Indeed it is of the first moment that the prejudices, so common among the majority of Englishmen, should be clearly shown to rest, for the most part, on an entire misunderstanding or ignorance of American habits and institutions. This would, in proportion to the measure of its success, clear

the way for a more complete *entente cordiale* and a greater mutual respect and kindly sentiment, in which the kinship of the two great English-speaking people should have a juster and more perfect realization in fact.

The form of the present work may, it is true, appear at first sight a very imperfect means of producing, in ever so small a measure, so desirable an end. We only profess to offer a few "notes of travel" and "reminiscences" of a somewhat lengthened visit to the United States, in the course of which we have reason to believe that we were enabled by the circumstances of our visit to arrive at a truer estimate of the American character, and form a more correct opinion on "things American" generally, than commonly falls to the lot of casual travellers.

Our reasons, then, for going to the United States were twofold—they have a positive and negative aspect. An European visiting the New World is necessarily impressed with the vastness of the American Continent, which almost seems sufficient in itself to justify its great pretensions of being the seat of future empires, the country which is destined hereafter to cover with its shadow the whole habitable globe. He sees before his eyes, moreover, the problem of Republicanism—that ideal government of successive ages of history—being gradually and, as yet, successfully worked out, in spite of the

hopes or fears with which the people of the Old World watch the development and progress of democratic institutions. He discovers how in less than a century a continent far larger than Europe has been subdued and colonized by a persevering and energetic race. He marvels to find another England on the western shores of the Atlantic preserving and cherishing many of the traditions of the Old England, but deriving, from the acquisition of a new and maiden territory, new climatic influences and consequently new modes of life, corresponding breadth in its political and social progress, and an ever-growing energy commensurate with, if not in excess of the exhaustless fertility and infinite resources it has at command. He may, if he will, speculate on the war of races being fought over anew on American soil, and on the possibility, or the reverse, of the various national elements which compose the body politic forming a homogeneous and substantial basis of unity. And lastly, he will find himself in the presence of natural scenery unsurpassed in beauty and grandeur even in the well-worn pathways of the Old World. These may be called positive reasons for a visit to the United States. Those who go thither for negative reasons will find (to use the words of a New England romance) "no monarchical supremacy, no hereditary prerogatives, no patent nobility, no kings, nor bishops with a voice in the affairs of State;

in the meadows no fairies, no saint-blessed wells, no spirits of the departed dwelling on the hills, nor mountains the seats of any gods, no resorts for pilgrims, no shrines for the devout, few traditions, legends, or fables. . . Ecclesiastical holidays have a precarious hold, and curses are not pronounced on Ash-Wednesday. In the church-yards bodies are buried on the north as well as on the south side. There is no peculiar virtue in the points of the compass that bodies should be buried with their faces to the east, nor that the clergy should repeat the Creed looking towards the east. All these superstitions of the Old World the Pilgrim Fathers left behind them in the *Old* World or lost overboard on their passage to the *New*."

It was with such sentiments as these that we embarked for America, and we can now unhesitatingly assert that our fondest anticipations were not in the least degree disappointed.

It is true that English writers have very commonly been disposed to criticise with some severity the manners and customs of Americans; and it is doubtless due, in great measure, to the mistaken views of many would-be depicters of the native American at home that we, as a nation, continue to form so untrue and prejudiced an estimate of their individual character. It is abundantly evident, for example, that, whatever may have been the case in her own days, Mrs. Trollope merely caricatures the

impressions with which a traveller now returns to England; her observations and conclusions being derived from a class of society very far removed from the best, even at that time. Dickens, too, in his later experience and description of Americans, confesses the injustice (involuntary indeed, but very galling to the subjects of it) and inaccuracies of his earlier popular sketches, in "Martin Chuzzlewit," &c. In point of fact the traditional "Yankee" of former English travellers is as extinct as the dodo; and the "Brother Jonathan" of our cartoons is as much like the American of to-day as the John Bull of *Punch*, with his low-crowned hat, top-boots, and bludgeon, fairly represents the Englishman of our time. The word "Yankee" is by no means a term of reproach among Americans. The word originated in the attempts of the Indians to pronounce the word English, they called the first English settlers "Yenglees," and so "Yankees." Strictly speaking, only the people of the five New England States, viz. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Maine, are Yankees, but during the war the word was applied by the Southerners to all Northerners indiscriminately, and since the war the New Englanders have gloried in the name which was used by the "rebels" to signify every thing mean and low.

Even in our own day, too, many of the travellers who visit America go thither for the purpose of

"doing" the country in the tourist style; few spend time enough to make acquaintances or to study, however superficially, the social life of the people and to arrive at any correct conclusions as to the aim and object of their institutions. Those who have done so are animated with a very different spirit to the above, and are generally ready to embrace the earliest opportunity of revisiting and renewing their old associations—perhaps the best proof, apart from our own experience, of the attention and hospitality with which foreigners are ever received and welcomed by the Americans.

Indeed it is quite impossible to say enough of the true kindness evinced towards us by every class. Were we able to judge of the feeling of the people of the United States towards the English nation generally by the uniformly kind and hospitable welcome which we ourselves individually experienced wherever we went, our international relations would leave nothing to be desired. As it is, although the two nations are very far from so understanding each other as to render suspicion and distrust and implied hostility impossible, it is at least a matter for genuine satisfaction that neither people allows their feelings on public matters to enter into the relations of private friendship and social intercourse.

The genuine American is intensely democratic, and watches with a jealous eye every thing which

seems likely to dim the lustre of the constitution of which democracy is the corner-stone. None the less truly, however, have they an aristocracy of their own, of which they are as proud, and possibly quite as reasonably proud, as any of the Old World hereditary aristocracies whose families rest for their honourable position less on their distinctive merits than on the fortuitous achievements of their perhaps distant founder. To the Americans, none the less truly because in part an accident of their national youth, the words of our own poet apply—

> "Kind hearts are more than coronets,
> And *noble deeds* than Norman blood."

The characteristic love of change so common to all Americans, which they seem indeed to imbibe with the air of their own free country, arises mainly and naturally from their desire of improvement, for the suggestion of which their country from its recent foundation furnishes abundant room. This experimentalizing, so to call it, with a view to ultimate improvement is a noticeable feature, as well in the planning and disposition of their cities and houses, as in their schools, colleges, and institutions. The only institution, in fact, which they do not wish to change or alter is the Constitution of their Government. This they believe to be almost perfect, and scarcely capable of improvement; and the jealousy with which the nation regards any

attempt at "amending" it may be exemplified by the extreme difficulty recently experienced in obtaining the necessary sanction of the several States to the proposed admission of the negroes to the franchise.

Among the many misconceptions of American institutions so prevalent among us, a very marked one is the view we are accustomed to take of religious matters on the other side of the Atlantic. From our own vantage-ground of an established Church closely allied until lately to the State in each of the three kingdoms, we are apt to regard the many and various religions which exist and flourish side by side in the United States as an evidence of want of deep religious feeling among the masses of the people. That this opinion is entirely erroneous the known sentiments of successive travellers abundantly confirm. In spite of the many varying (seldom conflicting) sects, or rather perhaps in consequence of them, it is now scarcely doubted that the mass of the American people is more thoroughly leavened with a religious spirit than perhaps the mass of any nation of the Old World. All sects are on an equal footing before the law; none is placed in an invidious or exceptionally privileged position. Hence there are no Dissenters; there is no distinction between the clergyman and the minister, the church and the chapel or meeting-house. It is not found necessary to have charities

for the relief of Church people and charities for Dissenters—all recognize the necessity of union in the presence of misfortunes and calamities and the distress to which humanity is ever liable; and all work harmoniously side by side on common committees with a beneficial result, tenfold enhanced by the practical force of their union.

Nor is this universal religious sentiment confined merely to attendance at church or chapel, where the congregations are invariably crowded; it pervades equally the railroads, the steamboats, and the forest. A very practical evidence of this is afforded by the relations which exist between the several ministers and their charges. The clergy are at least as liberally paid as they are in England, and when any is in ill-health his parishioners not unfrequently subscribe largely and send him on a tour, free of expense, and give him a hearty welcome on his return to his pulpit. A congregation has been even known to furnish a house for its pastor on his marriage; as an instance of which we insert a passage from an American newspaper quoted in a recent letter to the *Spectator*:—

"The pastor of the Camden New York Church, organized less than a year ago, writes with lively emotions of gratitude of his congregation's delicate and liberal attention to his wants. When he passed from the intermediate state of boarding to the full realization of housekeeping, cellar and larder were found stocked as if by magic; shortly after he had a surprise tin wedding."

Another very pleasing feature of the people is the manifest feeling of reverence for the dead which is evidenced in the care bestowed on their cemeteries, which are usually laid out with much taste in the prettiest spots in the neighbourhood of the cities; such, for example, as Mount Auburn near Boston, Laurel Hill at Philadelphia, and the Greenwood Cemetery at New York, well illustrate the attention and care with which they are kept up and are well worthy of a visit.

The English, generally speaking, are liked by the native-born Americans. The most bitter enemies to the English are, for the most part, such of the English themselves as have emigrated to the New World and been disappointed at a measure of success far below their golden anticipations; while others, recognizing no royal road to fortune, steadily push on and realize a competence. The Irish are the bane of the States, and are cordially hated by the other races of the New World. "Take back your Irish, and we'll cry quits about the 'Alabama' claims," said an American, expressing in these few words the unanimous sentiment of a large class of his countrymen.

The Irish have, it is true, been useful in their way, and America could not have got on without them so well in some respects, but politically they are always an eyesore and a nuisance, ever eager, with their traditional and apparently innate hatred

of order, to combine to upset the "powers that be." This is probably one reason for their throwing in their lot with the Democrats, since the Republican party is now in office; another motive, doubtless, being that the Democrats are theoretically, if not really, anxious for war with England, while the cry of the Republicans is "Grant and peace!" To the Germans and negroes they are as much foes as the red man is to the settler.

The Chinese, who are now being largely introduced into the States, especially California, are not well received by the native-born artisan, who supposes that the aim and tendency of coolie immigration is to cheapen labour.

The literature of the country is as yet in its infancy; and its growth is very slow and gradual. Indeed it may be questioned if the disposition of the people is sufficiently studious; a result in great measure of the necessarily and intensely practical life which the circumstances of their national existence and history render inevitable.

Much as literary men are valued and appreciated in society, as we shall hereafter have occasion to show, the career of letters *per se* offers little inducement to Americans generally, as not furnishing the usual incentives to distinction, nor anticipating the same results as more lucrative professions offer to the universal aspirations to wealth and consequent social position. The newspapers, which are almost

infinite in number and variety, and are universally read, do not, for kindred reasons, take the same high level which the press occupies here and in Europe generally. With one or two exceptions, they pander to the masses, and write down to their level. Hence the upper and more intelligent classes of the people hold the journals in little esteem; nor do they fairly represent the current thought and feeling of the better portion of American society, although we too often derive our impressions of the prevalent tone of thought on passing events almost exclusively from their columns.

That the unrestricted liberty of self-government which all Americans so largely enjoy has in it elements of danger is being evidenced by the increasing power of the railroad interest. Independent companies unite to form large and powerful corporations, arranged by a few individuals and possessing enormous wealth, and constituting an *imperium in imperio* of the most formidable dimensions.

The absence of any mortmain laws in the United States (except perhaps in Pennsylvania) allows of the absolute disposition of property at the will of the original possessor unfettered by any restrictions. Consequently the property held by undying corporations is rapidly increasing in amount. "Trinity Church" at New York, for instance, is a close corporation with an enormous income, the greater

part of which is annually reinvested according to the intention of the donor.

There is, at any rate, no present fear that the "earth-hunger" of English landlords will extend to people in the States. The country is altogether too vast to be soon absorbed, and country life, such as we find it in England, is as yet unknown. There is, on the contrary, a daily increasing tendency to live in large cities and in watering-places of general resort, where luxury, society, and education are more easily procurable. It is here that the Americans are most thoroughly at home, and they spare no pains and no money to add to and improve the comforts and luxurious appointments for which both their private residences and the hotels (truly American in their extent and appliances) are every where remarkable. Sufficient evidences in themselves in the details of their management, if evidence were wanting, of the singular fertility of inventive genius so largely enjoyed by the people. Among other examples of this, of which our pages will afford illustrations, we may mention the post-office arrangements in their large cities, which in many respects are superior to our own. It is comparatively seldom that the postman leaves letters at the houses. Almost every one has a numbered box at the office, of which he keeps the key. A somewhat similar arrangement may be seen at hotels in

England, where letters as they arrive are deposited in a pigeon-hole bearing a number corresponding to that of the guest's room. The *poste restante*, now universally adopted in both hemispheres as a great practical convenience, is more largely made use of in America. There it has become quite a domestic institution. Letters addressed to its care are distributed through two windows, one for ladies and the other for gentlemen; and lists of unclaimed letters are published weekly in the newspapers.



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CHAPTER I.

FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK.

THE first question that an Englishman who intends to visit the New World asks is, "How shall I get to it?" There are various ways of doing so; the most usual, of course, being by one of the many lines of steamers either to New York, Boston, or Quebec. To New York run the Cunard and Inman steamers, which carry the English mails, as well as the National and Guion lines, all starting from Liverpool and touching at Queenstown on their way out. There are also the Hamburg steamers, which call at Plymouth, and the North German Lloyd's steamships, touching at Southampton, as well as the French line from Havre, all running to New York. Each of these carries emigrants, except the Cunard mail-ships, starting from Liverpool every Saturday. The Allan line runs to Quebec, and on to Montreal up the St. Lawrence every week. These lines are nearly on

a par as regards speed and accommodation, though the most pleasant society is generally met with on the first mentioned ships, whose owners boast that they have never lost a steamer nor a mail, nor even a passenger except by his own fault.

The passage—so much dreaded by those who have only made the rolling deep their home for a few hours at a time, in crossing some of the channels that bound so much of our island home—will frequently be found, especially in summer and if the wind be moderate, to be no more than a sort of pleasant yachting excursion on a large scale; though when there is no wind, or when what there is is ahead, the discomfort of being either covered with cinders if one stays upon deck, or stifled if one retires below, very soon dispels the illusion. Passengers, who come on board expecting from their English Channel recollections to be confined to their berths for the greater portion of the voyage, are often never obliged to resort to them except for sleep; so different is the steady roll of the Atlantic swell acting on a ship of two or three thousand tons burden, from the chopping sea that plays pitch and toss (with a peculiarity all its own) with the little steamboat in which probably from 300 to 500 passengers are cribbed, cabined, and confined.

We do not mean to say that the greater portion of those who have sufficient *robur et æs triplex circum pectus* to trust themselves on the ocean

for ten days, are not usually unwell before they reach their destination, but that it is frequently the case that many of the passengers who have never been in a steamboat on the sea before, without suffering serious physical and mental distress (*mal-de-mer* affects the mind nearly as much as the body), find themselves on landing in America in a far more healthy state of mind and body than when they steamed out of the Mersey.

The ordinary routine of the voyage on any of these lines is nearly the same. We will take the Cunard line as an instance, which, as it is the most expensive, ought to be and is generally considered the best. The crew of these steamers numbers from 120 to 140 men according to the size of the vessel, consisting of a captain, four, and sometimes six, officers—all of whom have previously been in command of some merchant-vessel—a surgeon, purser, chief steward, and six engineers, about thirty stewards and the same number of stokers; the complement is made up by the seamen, among whom are a baker, a butcher, and their assistants. Most of these steamers when full carry about 250 first-class passengers, but occasionally as many as 300 or 320, and from 20 to 50 fore-cabin passengers. The latter have the same accommodation in the fore-saloon as the former in the saloon; but their meals are not at the same hours, their cabins not in such good situations, nor are they allowed to come aft

of the funnel on deck, which practically confines them below in any thing like rough weather, as the waves dashing over the bows soak every thing forward of the bridge thoroughly. It is as well to secure a cabin in one of these steamers three weeks before the day of sailing if possible, as frequently a person may get one to himself if the ship is not quite full.

The cabins on the average are nine feet long, by eight broad and seven high, and contain two berths, wash-stands, looking-glasses, and life-belts (the latter unpleasantly suggestive), with a sofa. There is one small round porthole by which the little place is lighted during the day; in the evening a dim religious light struggles painfully through a small piece of opaque glass, from a swing-lamp that is under the sole charge of the bed-room steward, who lights and extinguishes it without entering. This is considered sufficient for two cabins. In taking a berth in one of the screw-steamers (there is now only one paddle-wheel steamer constantly crossing the Atlantic, and her days, it is commonly reported, are numbered), it is best to secure one on the outside a little forward of the engines, as the ceaseless rolling of the screw-shaft is not so perceptible forward as aft of them. There are two lines of cabins on each side of the ship; those on the outside being lighted directly from the outer air through the aforesaid portholes, those

on the inside receiving only such faint rays as may find their tortuous way through the deck skylights and transparent ventilators of the outside berths into the passage that lies between these and the inside ones.

Though these berths are close, and it is usual in warm weather to pass the night with the door open, yet the entire absence of the smells usually so oppressive in smaller steamers forcibly strikes any one making the passage for the first time. If these exist, they are confined to the galley and engine-rooms, never penetrating to the passengers' quarters. The addition of a bath-room on each side of the ship would greatly increase the comfort of the passengers by this line.

The saloon is built on the main-deck, there being a space of about seven feet on each side between the bulwarks of the ship and the sides of the saloon, which are pierced at regular distances of four feet with square windows, which light and ventilate the room. This saloon is a large cabin, about sixty feet long by twenty broad and seven high, having on each side a table about four feet broad running the whole length of it, at which the passengers take their meals. At the head of one sits the captain; and at his table, which is perhaps ten feet long, are such of the passengers as he delights to honour. Formerly in the same position on the opposite side of the saloon to the captain sat the mail-agent, often

a lieutenant in the navy on half-pay, whose duty it was to sort the letters in the course of the voyage —a service now performed by the post-office *employés* on the mail-cars between Queenstown and Dublin. The first thing to do after embarking is to write your name on a card and give it to a steward, to be placed in whatever vacant place you may select as a suitable one for you to occupy during the voyage. It is advisable to go on board early, or to write beforehand to the head steward, in order to secure a good seat near the captain, whose place is usually considered the most distinguished in the saloon, as well as being the least affected by the motion of the ship.

The saloon has a door at each end; on both sides of the after one is a book-case containing a small library for the entertainment of the passengers; at the other end, in the same positions, are mirrors. Opposite the latter door is the entrance to the pantry, the sanctum of the stewards. Above the saloon is the deck, which is surrounded by a brass railing about four feet above the bulwarks of the ship, and this forms a promenade of over 300 feet long. Forward of the pantry is the "fiddle," or smoking-saloon, which is simply the space between the after hatchway on deck and the same on the main-deck. Beyond this is the engine-room and funnel, then the galley and officers' quarters, then the fore-saloon, and forecastle where the crew live.

The routine of one day—and one day on board is almost exactly a counterpart of the next—is as follows:—At 8 a.m. a bell is rung to let the passengers know that it is within half an hour of breakfast-time, and the steward enters most of the cabins to inform their occupants of the fact. Anxious questions are asked of him as to whether the wind is fair or not, what sail the ship is carrying, and whether it is rough; the answer to the first being frequently, "Dead ahead, Sir"—much to the grief of the inquirer. Those who have not already done so then turn out of their berths—the occupants of top ones descending cautiously from their precarious elevation; in rough weather, as Dickens has remarked, "lying in bed becomes a practical joke, and getting up, by any other method than rolling out, an impossibility." After making a toilette more comfortable than striking (at sea to attempt to dress elaborately is certain to result in failure), the passengers at the sound of the bell at 8.30 come up to breakfast in the saloon, and there meet such of their companions as have gained an appetite by an early stroll on deck. The breakfast, which consists of fish, chops, steaks, rolls, and other delicacies of the same kind, goes on till 9.30, after which no hot meat can be obtained from the galley; so sluggards who do not make their appearance till after that hour have to be content with cold meat, and coffee in much the same state.

After breakfast the passengers amuse themselves in various ways, either in reading, smoking, walking about on deck, or, if the weather is fine enough, playing shovel-board—a sort of mixture of skittles and croquet adapted to a ship's deck. Lunch is at noon; at which time the log is made out by the chief officer, who has probably been busy with his sextant for the half-hour previous, if the sun is at all visible. He then places upon a notice-board at the entrance to the saloon a statement of the exact position of the ship, with the distance she has run during the last twenty-four hours—a point upon which there is generally a great deal of speculation among the passengers, and no small amount of money changes owners about this in the course of the voyage. The ship's time is also corrected now; the clocks are put on half an hour in going east, and put back an equal period in coming west. The log is cast every two hours to try the speed at which the ship is moving; and frequently about a pint of water is raised in a canvas bag in which a thermometer is inserted, in order to ascertain the exact temperature of the ocean at that point; and the result of both is entered in the log. After lunch the same occupations are followed till dinner-time, or four o'clock, the only incidents in the day being the putting-up of the above notice, and the occasional sighting of a whale, a shoal of porpoises, or a large ship in the vicinity. If the

weather is bad, the officers are much exercised by the inquiries of timid passengers as to whether there is any fear, to which question the stern reply is, "Plenty of fear, but no danger." Dinner—at which, as at every other meal, napkins are as yet an unknown luxury—consists of five courses and dessert, and is finished about 5.30. If the day is long enough and the weather fine, the passengers then generally take a stroll on deck, and a last conversation with such friends as they have made on board, till 7 o'clock, at which time tea takes place, followed by reading, chess, or cards, till supper between 9 and 10 p.m.; after this most of the passengers retire, and all the lights are put out by the stewards, who have sole charge of them, before midnight. Such is life on board the finest British line of mail steamers in mid-ocean.

When nearing America the sea becomes a deeper blue, and a large black gull that haunts the American shores comes to take the place of the smaller white ones that have probably followed the ship from the Irish coast, as on the return voyage when nearing Ireland the latter drive away the former. This, and the appearance of many small fishing schooners announce the fact that the ship is on the banks of Newfoundland; and the first land sighted in the New World, as well as the last left in the Old, is generally British; for Cape Race, the extreme end of Newfoundland, 1000 miles from

New York, is usually in view—unless the weather be foggy, as it too frequently is here. The air here in fine weather is clearer, and darkness comes on almost immediately after sunset; while there is a strong smell of sea-weed, suggestive of the sea-side, white cliffs, shrimps, bathing-machines, and nothing to do. Then a notice is placed by the saloon that every one is to give up his passage-ticket to his steward, after writing on it his name, age, last legal residence, occupation, intended abode, and number of pieces of luggage belonging to him, for the information of the Government of the United States. This seems to English minds very much akin to the old continental passport system, and scarcely consistent with an entry into Freedom's proud domain. It is explained, however, by the fact that the Government wishes to obtain some statistics as to the number, destination, and last place of residence of every alien landing on their shores.

Should a fog come on, a huge whistle placed forward of the funnel is blown twice a minute, to the great discomfort of any one with weak nerves. Ships have been known to run parallel to each other for some hours, sounding these whistles, without either of them knowing the exact position of the other. They give a hoarse sound like a bellow; the shrill tone of the English railway-whistles being unknown on these ships as well as on the American locomotives.

When about 200 miles from land, a pilot is usually taken on board from a smart little schooner with white canvas, on which is painted in large figures the number of his boat (there are twenty-four of these in New York harbour); he brings American newspapers on board with him. Then commence preparations for going ashore. Presently, if in the daytime, Fire Island light-house is sighted, like a tall white column standing out on the horizon; and, in a few hours, on the left appears the sandy beach, where credulous speculators are said still to dig for Spanish doubloons. Soon the vessel is running up a channel crowded with shipping, and with houses and fortifications dotting the shore on either side. Then the passengers commence to put off the spray-saturated and sea-beaten garments that they have appeared in for the last ten days, and come on deck in the ordinary black hat and coat of civilized society; while the colours of the ladies' toilettes are only equalled by the hues of the rainbow. Then are seen on deck many individuals whose abode has been their own cabins during the whole of the previous part of the voyage, and who startle the rest by the appearance of new faces at that period. Then the after-hatchway is opened, and the passengers' luggage raised to the main-deck by a steam windlass, ready for disembarkation and examination at the custom-house.

Presently the screw is stopped; and from a small pier, bearing a yellow flag, comes off a little steamer, bringing a gentleman who boards our vessel, converses for a few moments with her surgeon, communicates the latest news, and returns to his own vessel. This is quarantine, which every ship has to pass before being allowed to enter the port of New York. Then the screw is started again, and the ship threads its tortuous way between crowds of vessels, large and small, at anchor and in motion, propelled by sails or steam. Small craft especially seem to court destruction by crossing the bows of the monster, whose slightest contact would sink them. Then comes in view the city itself, with its steeples, factories, and chimneys; and the ship either casts anchor in midstream (the port of New York is formed by the mouths of the Hudson and East rivers) or is taken into its dock, alongside of which is a long shed, in which the custom-house examination takes place. This examination is made in the most systematic and precise manner. On entering the shed, the passenger proceeds to write his declaration of the number of his packages and their contents on a printed form, which is signed by an official. This the passenger carries to another official, who looks at it and assigns him an inferior officer to examine his baggage; which is soon done, though not even a packet of wraps strapped together, or the smallest

hand-bag, is allowed to escape the eagle-eye and penetrating touch of the Government official. He even sometimes resorts to personal search in the case of any one whom he may at all suspect of having pockets unduly distended by cigars, watches, or other articles whose bulk is small in comparison with the amount of duty payable upon them.

The officers here are certainly extremely civil and obliging; and the custom-house is passed with as little annoyance or detention, and probably as little undetected smuggling, as any European one. The officials are not rendered conspicuous by wearing uniforms, possibly in order that they may be able to get through their work without being overwhelmed by the questions of newly-landed passengers, naturally anxious to experience the least possible delay in taking their ease in their inns.

CHAPTER II.

NEW YORK.

AN Englishman, on emerging from the custom-house with his goods and chattels, is impressed by the utter indifference with which the bystanders regard him or his. Should he not have already hired a cab (which goes by the name of a "hack" in America), he will have to carry his own luggage to the vehicle that is to convey him to his hotel, unless he asks one of the various persons standing about to help him, in which case he will have to pay him from one to two dollars. Native harpies do not swoop down upon the foreigner as he lands, anxious each to seize and carry off every individual article of his in a different direction—so prevalent a custom in European ports on the arrival of a passenger-ship; but as every man in America considers himself at least the equal, if not the superior, of any one else he meets in a casual way, he is

not at all anxious to volunteer his services when not asked for them.

If the traveller takes a hack the driver will act as porter for him; but, if he is going to an hotel, it is advisable first to ascertain whether there is not waiting in the neighbourhood, from the hotel, a "stage," an old-fashioned kind of coach, which will contain nine passengers on three rows of seats inside.

The first and greatest imposition to which he is likely to be subjected in the United States, is the price he will have to pay for a conveyance to his future abode, especially if he lands in Jersey city, which is on the opposite side of the Hudson to New York. The Cunard dock is situated here; and, as it is not under the control of the municipal government of New York city, even the exorbitant tariff, arranged by the members of the above government for their Irish friends who occupy the boxes of the hacks, is rendered void, and the latter take the opportunity of extorting from five to eight dollars (fifteen to twenty-four shillings) for a drive of from two to three miles, according to the part of the city they are told to drive to, and the amount of luggage they are required to carry. The harbour, which is the mouth of the Hudson River, and about three quarters of a mile broad, is crossed by a steam ferry, into which the carriage drives without there

being any perceptible descent or jerk in passing from the land to the boat.

The view from this point is very striking. The atmosphere is extremely clear; the buildings and steeples of New York stand in bold relief against the sky—that of Trinity Church with its large crockets being the most prominent. In the foreground white-sailed boats skim rapidly over the deep blue water of the noble river, skilfully avoiding the little tugs that snort busily about, in search of employment, among some of the huge ships which tower above them. Even at night the long lines of lights in the streets, with the coloured lamps of the different ferries, and the ships' lanterns twinkling on the water, render this view peculiarly attractive.

After crossing the ferry, the way lies through ill-paved, rough streets, with tramways for the street-cars down the centre. These tramways are a nuisance to every one driving except those who are in the cars themselves, as they cause great jolting to any carriage that crosses them, and in a crowded street there is not sufficient room to keep off them entirely. Most of these streets much resemble *boulevards* in the number of trees that are planted on each side, but in that alone, for no fourth-rate European town would ever allow its thoroughfares to remain in the disgraceful condition, as regards paving, lighting, and watering, which the

New Yorkers have to put up with in theirs, though their city boasts of a population amounting to 813,000. This is not occasioned by a want of liberality in the amounts voted for these purposes; but it is generally said that the Irish, who form the municipal government, give away the contracts to such friends of theirs as will make it most profitable for both parties; so that the greater part of the money goes into alien pockets, instead of being expended honestly on the improvement of the city. Probably no town in the world with nearly a million of inhabitants is so badly governed as New York; though it is only fair to say that the Yankees repudiate New York as an American town, calling it a cosmopolitan city. The population consists principally of Irish (to which nation belong most of the servants, work people, &c.) and Germans. The rest are English, Swedes, Americans, negroes, with a few representatives of other European nations. The descendants of the Dutch colonists of New Amsterdam have almost disappeared, though there are to be found among the old Dutch population the most refined and cultivated people of New York; and traces of their occupation of the surrounding country exist in the frequent occurrence of such names as Spuyten-Duyvel, Yonkers, &c., in the vicinity of New York.

There are many excellent hotels in New York, both on the European plan, that of paying only

for what one orders—such as the Hoffman and Brevoort Houses, to the latter of which most English travellers go—and on the American plan of paying a fixed number of dollars, from three and a half to five *per diem*, for the time one occupies a bedroom. Of the latter class are the Fifth Avenue, an "up-town" or West-end hotel, the largest in the city, the New York, St. Nicholas, and Astor House, which is much patronized by commercial travellers, as it is "down town" or near Wall Street, the Lombard Street of New York.

Supposing a person to enter the Fifth Avenue Hotel, where many American families live for several months in the year and which is said to be the largest and handsomest in America, at 10 a.m., which is during breakfast-time, the first thing he has to do is to put down his name and place of residence in a book at the office, when he will be given a room by the clerk, who in other hotels is frequently also the proprietor, and, if he states that he has already had breakfast, "*L*" will be put against his name to show that he came in at luncheon-time. Supposing he stops that day and the next, and leaves early on the following morning directly after breakfast, his bill will amount to ten dollars—as at this hotel the charge is five dollars *per diem*, including writing-paper and every thing except wine—though he may not have taken a single meal in the house; but at the same

time he may have lived there luxuriously, the table being most profusely provided at every meal; there are usually about seventy dishes to choose from for dinner, fifty for breakfast, and a like number for supper. The hours for meals are—breakfast, seven to eleven; lunch, one to two; dinner *à-la-carte*, two to five, *table-d'hôte*, half-past five to half-past seven; tea from six to nine; supper, nine to twelve.

The ground-floor of the Fifth Avenue Hotel is occupied by the aforesaid office, by smoking, reading, and writing rooms, and a bar-room, as well as by a huge hall in which a large number of citizens congregate to smoke and talk, especially between seven and eight o'clock in the evening. This was particularly the case on the night of the 24th of September, 1869, the day of the great panic in Wall Street. The whole of the lower story of the hotel was crowded by persons connected with business who had met to discuss the momentous events of the previous twelve hours, and the discomfiture of the unprincipled speculators. The crowd did not disperse till midnight. The whole of these rooms, as well as the billiard-room in the basement, containing twelve tables for the English, French, and American games (the latter is the cannon game, played with four balls on the same sort of table as the French use), are open to every one, and are not at all restricted to persons

staying in the hotel. There are some other large rooms on this floor, which are a sort of family bed-rooms, containing six or seven beds apiece. Above this comes the first-floor, where one enters the hotel proper. On this are a suite of public drawing-rooms magnificently furnished and decorated, large and small dining-rooms, &c.; the rest of it is taken up with private rooms and bed-rooms. The "elevator," or lift, also starts from this floor, above which there are five more occupied by bed-rooms. The roof commands a splendid view over the city and harbour. Few English as a rule come to this hotel, as they generally prefer smaller ones.

The servants in this city are Irish, almost without exception; and, though perfectly willing to do any thing required of them, are very free in their manner of addressing their employers; for instance, an Englishman, on explaining to Bridget some omission in his bed-room, was met by the reply, that she "guessed it was his own fault." Since the war negroes have taken the place of the whites who were formerly the waiters in almost all the hotels of the Northern States, with the exception of those in New York city. These negroes, before they were free, were mostly indoor servants in the households of Southern planters; they have now come North, and are rapidly supplanting the whites in the coffee-rooms and barbers' shops of the above named hotels. A barber's shop is as much an

institution in an American hotel as a bar-room is in an English one; it is also to be found on most of the large steamers.

New York city is at present about four miles long by about three quarters of a mile broad, and lies between the Hudson and East rivers. The principal street is Broadway, which is nearly four miles long, running from the Central Park at the north to the Battery at the extreme south of the city. It is a fine street, especially at that part where it crosses Fifth Avenue—the Belgravia of the city; no tramways are allowed to be laid on it, but it is almost blocked by the omnibuses that creep along four or five abreast, as if the free and independent citizens in charge were quite convinced that time was made for slaves, and wasted it accordingly. About half way down this street stands the gigantic store of A. T. Stewart for "dry goods and notions," as the Americans call almost every article of wearing apparel that is not made by a tailor. This is a huge building of cast-iron forming one "block" by itself; it is painted white, and is about four times as large as Shoolbred's in Tottenham Court Road, though it does not cover four times as much ground. The proprietor of this is said to have realized profits to the amount of 600,000*l.* by the sale of his goods in a single year, and to have started in life as a shop-boy in an establishment of the kind; though others "claim" that he is a

graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, and that he began life as a schoolmaster in New York.

Nearly parallel with Broadway are First, Second, and Third Avenues, and so on up to Eleventh; they are cut at right angles by streets numbered from one upwards, and running east and west across the city, from river to river. Further east than First Street the streets have names instead of numbers, as in European cities. The Bowery is another large thoroughfare, forming a continuation of Fourth Avenue towards the south. This is the St. Giles's of New York, from which occasionally have issued bands of rowdies who have set all law at defiance. This was notably the case early in the war, when all the soldiers were away from the city; and New York was in much the same state as a conquered city with a victorious army treating the inhabitants as it pleased. Many lives were lost at that time, and no property was safe till the return of the famous Seventh Regiment restored order. Here too is the Bowery theatre, whose audience, in warm weather frequently coatless, delights in any representation of the usurping Saxon owner of the Irish soil falling beneath the blows of an honest "boy" who finds it far more simple to murder his landlord than work for his rent. The cry of "Hurrah for ould Ireland!" always brings down the house, and the length of time a piece runs varies inversely as the frequency with which this and similar slogans

are repeated. These performances an American guide-book rightly describes as "spectacular and highly sensational."

The favourite resort for the citizens, either in carriages or on foot, is the Central Park—so called prematurely, for the city, as yet, by no means surrounds it—a fine undulating piece of ground, containing 843 acres picturesquely laid out and well kept, about half a mile broad and somewhat more than two miles long. The winding drive round it is nine miles long; and here the New Yorkers delight to be seen in the afternoon, in their lightly built waggons (these four-wheeled vehicles are considered heavy if they weigh more than one hundred pounds), driving horses which trot at least fifteen miles an hour. This park is ornamented with two fine pieces of water, on which those who are so inclined disport themselves in summer in boats, and in winter on skates; during a frost the gates are left open till midnight. In 1860 the Prince of Wales planted an oak and elm here, but contact with royalty, to judge from these specimens, does not seem favourable to the growth of trees on the soil of a Republic.

The richer and more fashionable inhabitants are rapidly moving nearer and nearer to this park, as streets which twenty years ago were almost in the fields begin to be looked upon as not sufficiently "up town" to be pleasant. The people

of New York constantly change the addresses of their places of business, as well as of their private residences. The latter are generally large houses built of brown stone, which gives them rather a heavy look. The plates and handles on the doors, for which we employ brass, are there made of electro-plate, which has hardly such a good effect, and seems to remind one of the newness of the country.

The quays along South Street are crowded with the shipping of all nations, and show how vast the commerce of the United States is. South Street runs all along the south end of the city; one side of it is occupied by large warehouses, merchants' places of business, and buildings of that kind facing the sea, and the other by the said shipping. At right angles to it, near its eastern end, is Wall Street, a wide street running from the docks up to Broadway, on the other side of which stands Trinity Church. A good view of this fine building is obtained in coming up Wall Street. Near here are situated all the principal bankers' and merchants' offices, as well as the gold-room, the scene of the panic of September, 1869. There is nothing exactly corresponding to this place in England, as fortunately our bank-notes are worth in gold the sum they profess to represent. In this room nothing but gold changes hands, and no one is said to be admitted to the body of the room

except brokers, though the writer was smuggled in, through the kindness of a friend, while the above-mentioned panic was at its height. In the centre of the room is a circular iron railing, within which stands a clerk at a desk to register the price-current. Round this railing the whole of the business is transacted; and on the day in question, men, young, old, and middle-aged, were raging in a state of frenzy, shouting, gesticulating and even, when passion prevented articulation, mouthing at each other. The only person on the floor of the room who seemed to be possessed of ordinary calmness was the clerk within the iron railing. At a few minutes after twelve o'clock, on September 24, a telegram arrived from Washington, authorizing the sale of four millions of dollars in gold by the Government—an announcement which put an effectual termination to the plans of the speculators who were "bulling" the market. Gold was then at 160 (though this price was offered for nothing less than one million dollars at once), five minutes after the arrival of the telegram it had fallen to 132—a fall too rapid for the dial in front of the gallery, as it could not be worked down to the above point till fifteen minutes after the announcement had been made. One of those who took a most prominent part in this scene shortly afterwards went out of his mind; and others are said to have committed suicide in consequence of being unable to

meet their liabilities. We fear, however, that the most culpable of the speculators were rather gainers than losers by the panic which resulted from their nefarious transactions.

The New York of a century ago was almost confined to this quarter of the present city, for at that time the "up-town" or northern part of the city was without houses; and all of the south-eastern portion that could be reclaimed from swamps, where Delancy, Rivington, and Stanton streets now stand, was covered by farm-houses whose owners looked upon them as country residences.

There are between twenty and thirty ferries running from New York, the greater part of which either cross the East River to Brooklyn, or the North River to Jersey city. By these rivers what would have made up one city half as large again as New York is split into three, thereby causing a good deal of delay and inconvenience to traffic. It is proposed to build suspension bridges over these rivers at such a height as not to cause any interruption to the navigation; but they have not yet been commenced, and communication is kept up only by steam ferry-boats.

We cannot do better than wind up this description of some of the most prominent features of New York city by a short account of an institution which we believe to be peculiar to

America, or, at all events, far more developed in America than in England. This is a Young Men's Christian Association, which was opened on November 29, 1869, and is found to be of great practical utility; and if institutions of the same kind were opened in London, they would go far towards improving the education of the lower middle classes. It occupies a large building at the corner of Fourth Avenue and East Twenty-third Street. On the first-floor is a large hall, with seats for 1500 persons, to be used for lectures on practical and scientific subjects, as well as for the public religious meetings of the Association to which the building belongs. In this room are an organ and grand piano for the popular concerts that are frequently given under the direction of the musical committee. When not otherwise engaged the hall is let for meetings of other descriptions. On the same floor are also reception, reading, sitting, and committee rooms, with another for the use of the secretary, who is the executive officer of the Association. Above these are a large fire-proof library, and small lecture-room for the meetings of the Literary Society, &c., with four others for evening-classes in modern languages, music, drawing, natural science, &c. The rest of this floor is occupied by artists' studios; and on the ground-floor are a gymnasium, and bath-rooms "for the use of the large numbers of young men whose boarding-houses

afford them no convenience of the kind." The cost of the site and building was rather over 90,000*l.*, which had almost all been collected at the time of opening. This property is vested in a board of nine trustees, who have the power of appointing their successors, and therefore are a close corporation.

The following is an account of the objects of the Association quoted from their own prospectus :—

"The work is carried on by a Board of Directors, who have charge of all the business of the Society, its Branches, Lectures, and Public Meetings, and by the following Committees of the Association.

"INVITATION COMMITTEE—Makes the objects and advantages of the organization known to young men, and invites them to the Rooms.

"MEMBERSHIP COMMITTEE—Receives and passes upon all names proposed for membership. Members of this Committee are always in attendance at the rooms during the evening, to receive and welcome strangers.

"EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEE—Seeks to find employment for all young men needing situations. Its chairman is at the Rooms during several hours of each day, and has been most successful in this work.

"BOARDING-HOUSE COMMITTEE—Finds safe and comfortable boarding places for young men.

"VISITATION OF THE SICK COMMITTEE—Cares for all sick young men who may be in the city without family or friends.

"COMMITTEE ON RELIGIOUS MEETINGS—Sustains, at the Rooms and other places, religious and devotional meetings, and educates the members in Christian work.

"MUSICAL COMMITTEE—Has in charge the musical classes and entertainments of the Association.

"LITERARY SOCIETY—Affords an opportunity for the culture of the members of the Association in composition, literature, and debate.

"CHURCH COMMITTEE—Consists of two members from each church in the city, and aims to introduce young men to the churches, and to develope and strengthen their interest and usefulness therein.

"THE BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION provide local reading-rooms, lectures and classes, and are organized in the same manner as the parent Society.

"We have also established Associations, German and Coloured, by young men of the city.

"THE OBJECTS OF THE ASSOCIATION are, in the first place, to offer a safe and attractive resort to the thousands of untried young men who come as strangers to the city, with limited means, who are crowded into uncomfortable, cheerless boarding-houses, and exposed to great temptations.

"Second, to amalgamate this great class with those of like age who are residents of the city, so that they may be benefited by each others' acquirements and companionship; and,

"Lastly, so to educate and elevate all these young men, that their force and enthusiasm may be turned into the channels of morality, benevolence, and Christian activity.

"To this end, the Association embraces not only church members, but all whom it can reach, and the dues and fees, amounting altogether to five dollars a year (adding only ten cents per week to board), are made so moderate, that none need be excluded. By confining the direction to men connected with churches, a sufficiently restraining influence is attained. As years pass by, and those who come as poor boys to this city, and, forming their first fellowship and sympathy here, take their places in its prominent trades and business, the true importance of the labours of the Association will be appreciated.

"Large expense has been incurred in the erection of this

building ; but it must be remembered that, in securing the objects we have in view, we come into direct competition with the theatres, the gambling-houses, the bar-rooms, and other places of even worse character, which spare no effort and hesitate at no expenditure in attracting the thousands of young men who find themselves in this great city without homes, family influences, or restraints.

"It is needless to say that the character and training of this very class are of incalculable importance to the well-being of our city. If, while their habits are yet unformed, we can bring them under Christian and manly influences, our money is well spent, as the entire cost of this building does not equal that of either one of the theatres which have been erected on the same street."

CHAPTER III.

SOCIAL LIFE.

WE almost feel that we owe the Americans an apology for having supposed, before visiting their country, that they were less civilized and less refined than Europeans. This error is due in a great measure to the opinion which one is apt to form of the people of a nation from the individuals who fall in one's way. The travelling American who is met with on the Continent of Europe, and has to sit for the national portrait, is not to be taken as by any means a fair specimen of his people, any more than John Bull abroad is a fair representative of his race at home.

It has often been said that nearly every American who travels in Europe asserts that he comes from the oldest family in the United States, and that he can trace his descent lineally from one or other of the Pilgrim Fathers. This is indeed a curious genealogical fact, if it be true. We venture

to think that the travelling Englishman seldom finds the necessity or the opportunity for making similar statements with regard to himself or his family.

The physical features of the country in which the Anglo-Saxons happen to be born seem to stamp themselves on their characters.

The American is apt to talk largely on almost every subject, and is addicted to exaggeration and hyperbole—and especially so the "Westerner," of whom many characteristic stories are told. Thus one, in describing the large trees of Yo Semite Valley, said, "They are so high that it takes two men and a boy to see the top of them;" and another, on being asked by a friend if he saw a certain mosquito on the weather-vane of the State House at St. Louis, answered, "Yes; I see it winking." A third, in writing to a friend a description of the prices of carriages at Niagara, asserted that the "hack-fares are so high that the Falls are insignificant by comparison." And a fourth, proud of his birth-place, observed that, "A man who had been born in Boston did not require to be born again." And another story is related, with the appearance of truth, of a boy who was watching his schoolfellows as they snow-balled an old gentleman's windows. The old gentleman rushed out of his house determined if possible to inflict severe corporal punishment on the offender, saying,

when he caught the boy, "Now, you rascal, I'll thrash you within an inch of your life!" Accordingly he began to beat him, when he immediately commenced laughing, and continued until the old gentleman stopped beating him with the exclamation, "Boy, what is it you're laughing at?" "Well," said the boy, "I'm laughing because *you* are awfully sold; *I ain't the boy!*"

But these remarks apply rather to the people as a whole than to the best educated and most refined class. If nations like individuals have peculiarities, "tall-talk" is that of the Americans. The Englishman, on the other hand, when at home, is an island in himself, safe, tranquil, incommunicable, and sometimes even when abroad holds himself aloof in proud reserve.

Thus the typical John Bull even now, as of old, is when abroad quite as disagreeable a personage as the typical Yankee; and consequently we think that all will agree with us that, in judging of the manners of a people, we must not form our conclusions illogically from a few specimens only, but rather forbear to criticise until we have seen them in their own homes. We must not, moreover, form our opinions of a people from those whom we meet travelling in their own country.

Many an Englishman has hurried through America, many an American through England, and been able to say that he has not seen a gentleman or

lady in the country; but all his experience has been among the travelling public, which in England is mainly composed of commercial travellers, in America of emigrants and merchants, or their agents.

Even the proverbial nasal-twang, the high-pitched voice, and the slow drawling pronunciation are not found among the upper classes of society; among these there are certain forms of pronunciation that differ from what we are accustomed to, but they must not be put down as vulgar on that account. These forms are exceptional peculiarities; but, of course, the exceptions always thrust themselves prominently forward.

The nasal-twang is prevalent in New England only, and especially in those towns which were originally settled by emigrants from those parts of Norfolk and Suffolk where this peculiarity still obtains.

And here it will not be out of place to mention that what we put down as "Americanisms," are really Shakespearian and Spenserian words, which, having long ago become obsolete in England, still hold their own in the phraseology of the New World. For instance, even for the words, "I guess," which are imputed to the Americans as a favourite phrase, there is some authority. Thus in Wycliffe's translation of Phil. iii. 8, we find, "Netheless I gesse alle thingis to be peirements;" as well as in Spenser's "Faerie Queen," Book IV. canto x. 23,

"It seemed a second Paradise, I ghesse;" and in Coleridge's "Christabel," "I guess 'twas frightful there to see," where the words are almost equivalent to "I take it for granted." Not that we mean to say that the frequent use of this word is agreeable to the ear: far from it; but we merely wish to show that there is at least some authority, trifling though it be, for the colloquial use of the word to-day. The verb "to *fix*" was in use, as early as 1675; the Commissioners of the United Colonies had to see "their arms well *fixed*." "Gunning" for "shooting" is found in Drayton; and "loan" for "lend," and "fleshy" for "stout," are to be met with in some old English authors.

The "au" in "daughter" and "slaughter" is pronounced as "*ah*," and "ew" as "*oo*" in "new," and "a" as "*ai*" in "are;" and to these instances many others might be added, gathered from the country-people and farmers in the States. On the other hand, the traveller will never meet with an American who forgets to pronounce his *h*'s in the beginning of words; nor will he find such great varieties of dialect as are to be found in Yorkshire and Devonshire in England. There is a far greater average correctness of speaking the English language among the people of the United States than among the English.

And even granted that there are new words and phrases in the language of America, the different

conditions of life and the new aspect of things demand that some corresponding change should be made, in order to adapt the language to the requirements of the people.

The charge that Yankees are addicted to quoting Scripture in their ordinary conversation is to some extent true; but, as Mr. Hosea Biglow has remarked, "they do not put their Maker away far from them, or interpret the fear of God into being afraid of Him."

We have more than once alluded to the best class of Americans. Under this we include all the literary, scientific, and professional people of the large cities, and also many merchants. The professions rank more among the "upper ten" than in England. There is no deep gulf fixed between surgeons and physicians; the physician is always thought worthy of the first seat at the table of his patient's family; there is no distinction between barristers and solicitors: but every honest profession is considered honourable.

We do not find in a general way Members of Congress moving in the first circles of society. It is one of the tendencies of the payment of representatives to make politics a trade into which low adventurers are drawn.

The rich, again, in America, who are usually connected with some mercantile concern, have no desire to spend half the year at a mere political

city like Washington; nor is there such scope for individual ambition in the American Congress as in the English Parliament. In England the Parliament is the centre of all the political discussion of the country. If an Englishman wants to alter any thing—if he even wants to make a railroad or a drain—he has to apply to the Parliament for help; but, in America, the Congress is only concerned with the most important affairs of State, for all the smaller subjects of legislation are treated of in the legislatures of the States, and ecclesiastical matters are never discussed.

Some special training for every profession and for every calling is requisite in the Old World, where the competition is so great, and the avenues to success so blocked up; but in the New World, which is as yet undeveloped, there is room for individual energy and action. This accounts for the acuteness which we are wont to attribute to all Americans; but we ought rather to be struck with the immense *number* of minds which rise to practical acuteness and facility, than with the particular acuteness of any individual. The temptations to a practical life are so very great in a "new country" as directly to discourage any thorough intellectual training. There is as yet no intellectual class in the country from which the Members of Congress are to be drawn. The literary and scientific element is so insignificant in numbers,

and so small as compared with the vast number of people engaged in business, that it cannot lay any claim to be called a "class." There is so much more good to be done in the States by a man as a private citizen in making his country by encouraging education and the various institutions due to the public spirit of the people than by entering the political arena.

The want of taste and refinement in the politics of America is not Democratic, but Colonial. We find this in Australia and in Canada quite as much, if not more, than we do in the United States.

Wealth for its own sake is not thought as much of as it is in England. The traveller will rarely hear dollars and cents made the subjects of conversation, except in some New York drawing-rooms.

Wealthy men in America, having no prospect of peerages and baronetcies, are led to make a noble and beneficent use of wealth in founding institutions, such as colleges, libraries, and museums. We, in England, are apt to be misled in forming our opinions of the Americans in supposing that because they spend their money liberally they are therefore ever thinking, talking, and dreaming of dollars; but we question whether, in the matrimonial markets of the New World, so many "bargains" take place as in those of Europe.

We have dwelt thus at length on the reasons why

Members of Congress are not found in the best society because the detractors and haters of every thing American are wont to point triumphantly to the fact, without stopping to consider the different conditions of things in the New World.

There is a general feeling of self-respect among Americans which enables those who rise in the world to take their place in good society easily and naturally. Nowhere do the offensive features of social distinctions exhibit themselves: the general sentiment of society prevents it. And again, classes in the United States are being perpetually shuffled, like a pack of cards. For the English law of entail hardly obtains there, except in Massachusetts and in Pennsylvania. If a man were to entail the bulk of his property, it is doubtful if at the present day the American Courts of Law would not set aside any such arrangement. Public opinion is strongly opposed to any thing like an unequal distribution of property by will. The accident of birth is not considered a sufficient reason for making one child rich at the expense of the others. Hence there are no distinctive differences in society. The lines between classes are by no means so rigid as in England. But from this perpetual shuffling springs a monotony—a sameness—among them which extends to their ships, their houses, their line of thought, and to the names of the streets in the different cities. Thus the

principal streets of Philadelphia have their namesakes in St. Louis and Chicago, and in the main streets of all the rising cities of the West.

The principal seasons of gaiety are the summer and winter, and the intervals of spring and autumn are usually spent in travelling. The winter season in the cities lasts about two months, and the summer season at the watering-places nearly as long.

This annual change of residence from the cities to the sea-side, or to the mountains, is rendered necessary by the extreme heat of the cities during the summer months. In Boston, the most northern of the eastern cities, the thermometer often stands at 100° in the shade. In New York the heat is nearly as great; and in Philadelphia it is almost insufferable in the months of July and August, the red-brick pavements and walls seeming to attract the rays of the sun.

The winters are very severe in New England; and even in New York the thermometer often falls many degrees below zero. To counteract this cold the houses are heated by means of hot-air, issuing from "register-stoves," as they are called, in addition to the ordinary open fires of English houses.

This accounts to some extent, no doubt, for the fact that the complexions of American ladies are not so fresh and lasting as those of their English

cousins. And the prevalent habit among American ladies of wearing thin high-heeled French boots, and of seldom clothing themselves during the severe winters in furs and seal-skins, or of "dressing suitably" (as we say), is to blame to a great extent for the prevalence of consumption—the scourge of New England and the Atlantic shores—and the delicate constitutions of the people.

The principal amusements during the winter season are found in assemblies or balls, in theatre-going, in concerts (for the Americans, although not good composers, know well how to appreciate good music, as was evidenced in the recent Peace Festival at Boston), and in the "brain-parties," which are usually made up of a number of ladies, who meet in turns at each other's houses for the purpose of having "tea-and-talk."

It seems that the characteristics of the first settlers in the different parts of the United States have impressed themselves on their descendants, particularly in their mode of life. Boston was originally settled by those Puritans who, flying from the Old World, its forms of religion and political belief, and its prejudices, landed at Plymouth with the purpose of establishing equal religion and social rights to all. Their God-serving, quiet disposition became so firmly engrained in the descendants of the Pilgrim Fathers, that to this day the Bostonians preserve their traditions.

But (as has before happened in the history of the world) those who themselves had fled from persecution, as they grew in worldly strength, began to persecute all who ventured to hold religious views different from their own. The victims of this persecution, who held the *Methodist* belief, fled to the Indians of Rhode Island, made treaties with them, and formed a settlement about the site on which the noble city of Providence now stands; and the majority of the inhabitants of this city, even in our own days, still profess the creed of their forefathers.

The society of Philadelphia, again, although no longer to any perceptible extent hampered by the traditional forms and dress of its Quaker founders, still retains in the sober quietness of the inhabitants, and their manners, as well as in the simple arrangement of the streets and houses, the traces of Penn and his brotherhood, the first settlers.

Virginia, too, by means of that most degrading institution, slavery, has been able to this day to maintain and propagate its aristocratic traditions, handed down from Raleigh and the men of noble families who accompanied him. They came not as outlaws, but to found another England in the New World; and the refinement and the hospitality of the race from which they sprang, have been faithfully handed down by them as a legacy to their posterity.

Baltimore, again, originally granted to Calvert, Lord Baltimore, a liberal-minded Roman Catholic, is still famous as a stronghold of the Papal religion.

New Orleans, also, the metropolis of the South-Western States, was settled by French colonists, who still preserve the traditions of their mother country. The Creoles of Louisiana are mostly of pure French extraction, and in their dress, their manners, and their education, still endeavour to perpetuate the old *régime* of the country of their forefathers.

New York is perhaps the only city which does not bear the marks of the manners and customs of its first colonizers; and this because they were the Dutch, who soon became amalgamated with the more numerous and more stable English settlers; and because New York is more cosmopolitan than any city in the Union.

The literary society of Boston is especially charming, composed as it is of such distinguished and cultivated men as Longfellow, Lowell, Holmes, Motley, Emerson, Agassiz, and many others, most of whom reside and are professors at the neighbouring University of Cambridge. Nearly all these belong to a club, whose members are only elected by ballot after a strict scrutiny, the club being distinctly of a private character, limited in its number of members, and intended principally for social intercourse, which takes the form of a

monthly dinner. There are also numerous smaller clubs of the same kind, organized on the same principle, whose members are nearly all graduates of the neighbouring University of Harvard. And there are, moreover, one or two popular science clubs, composed of the scientific men and wealthy merchants; the latter of whom are usually willing to find food for the body, as the former do for the mind, at their weekly reunions.

The larger clubs, which are organized on the model of those in London and Paris, are very pleasant places of resort for the traveller, who, if he is wise enough to desire to make friends and acquaintances, will take up his abode for a time in some city. He will then without fail, provided he is known to any member, receive an invitation in the name of the Committee "to avail himself of the privileges of the club for one month"—an extension of hospitality almost unknown to the more exclusive clubs of London. This attention is not peculiar to any one city, but is prevalent in the clubs of Boston as well as New York, of Chicago as well as Philadelphia, of San Francisco as well as Baltimore.

It is a common saying in the United States, that the characteristics of the people of the three principal eastern cities come out in the questions they ask of strangers who are admitted into their society. In Boston it is asked about a young lady if she is

clever; in New York, if she is rich; and in Philadelphia, if she is pretty.

Theatre-parties, which are very popular in the States, are got up, like other parties, by one person, who invites an equal number of ladies and gentlemen to go from his house to the theatre, the tickets being provided by the host, and to return afterwards to sup; the hostess usually assigning a lady to the care of each gentleman.

In the theatres there are no boxes; the best seats are in the parquet or pit; but there is an absence of brilliant toilettes, as it is not customary to go to the play in evening costume. Most of the actors are English; and the price of admission varies from 2*s.* to 7*s.*

The land in the cities is very valuable, and consequently the houses have gained in height what they have lost in breadth. And while on this subject we may mention that in Boston, New York, and Chicago, the houses in the best streets bring as much as 2000*l.* or 3000*l.* a year rental. In Philadelphia, on the contrary, the houses in the most fashionable streets can be obtained for 300*l.* or 400*l.* a year; and even the artisan who lives in this city has a neat house and home comforts at a moderate cost. But in this respect Philadelphia is exceptional, for it is said to have one-third less population, and one-third more houses than New York.

The expense of living in the United States is so great that many families find it more economical to spend their summers in travelling in Europe than at the watering-places of their own country (and this is one of the causes which predispose Americans to restlessness, and drive them in such crowds to the cities of Europe). Washing costs about *7s.* a dozen pieces; gloves, about *10s.* a pair; and for a frock-coat, 18 guineas is not an unknown price. Hack (or cab) fares rise from *7s.* upwards for the shortest distance. The hire of a carriage and pair of horses, with the coachman, for a month, is about *45l.* Unskilled labour fetches about *7s.* a day, and artizans and mechanics earn as much as *12s.* a day.

The dearness of every thing, and the great cost of living, are due probably to the high protection tariff; to the uncertainty of the value of gold at any given time when an article purchased has to be paid for; to the scarcity of labourers; and to the heavy taxation, which arises from the desire of all patriotic Americans to reduce their national debt rapidly, and to return to a gold currency.

From this example all older countries may well take a lesson, for the anxiety to free their country from debt is shared by all alike, and all submit willingly and cheerfully to be pinched now with a view to the future welfare of their country,

for it is calculated that within a generation their national debt will be paid off.

The hotel bills on the American plan, railroad travelling, and every kind of fruit are, however, very cheap, compared with the prices in England.

In retail trade the credit system is hardly known in the States, or is very short indeed, and hence less capital is requisite, and more business is done with the same amount than is the case in England.

The Americans delight in doing every thing on a large scale and in a wholesale way. They are among the most hospitable people on earth, as one of their own writers has endeavoured to *prove* in this way. He says that hospitality is, after all, a mere matter of latitude. The African's house is a palm-tree, all door and no wall, so that any one can walk in; the Esquimaux's house, on the contrary, is all wall and no door, except such as an apple with a worm-hole has. Between these two extremes a regular gradation may possibly be traced. But hospitality and sociability are quite distinct; and it is only those travellers who remain a long time in the United States who discover the existence of any real sociability. In their large evening-parties their theory is to crowd a room with twice as many people as it will conveniently hold, in order to make them happy! They have

discovered that humanity at a high pressure produces social fermentation.

The Americans are very fond of dancing, which is their usual means of amusement at evening parties. They dance very gracefully; and in the waltzes and galops the gentlemen and ladies hold each other differently from the English, and practice the reverse quite as much as the forward motion. Thus their dances very much resemble the polka-mazurka of English balls.

The public balls are very similar in their general features and management to those in England. They are generally got up by subscription, and under the control of a committee, who issue the invitations. Earlier hours are kept than in England. A ball usually begins about 9 in the evening, and concludes about 2 a.m. The dances are very similar to those which are found in our programmes: sometimes waltz-quadrilles, and a polka-redowa are inserted; but no ball is considered a success unless the evening finishes with a "German" (cotillon), which usually lasts two or three hours without intermission. This dance merely reflects in the ball-room the general usage of society in the United States, which tends to recognize "woman's rights," and to allow the lady to assert her freedom of action, as of choice, since in many figures the lady selects her partner. But this dance, which is growing in popularity in American society, appears

to us to be objectionable for three reasons,—firstly, because it may not always be agreeable to spend so much time with the same partner; secondly, because those ladies who are not fortunate enough to have been engaged for the "German" beforehand, seldom find a partner during the evening; and, thirdly, as only a limited number can join in it, the majority of the invited guests are compelled either to look on in silence, or to leave their host's house at an early hour. On the other hand, it is a very graceful dance, and one very interesting, if not exciting, to watch from a distance, particularly the figure in which the ladies face inward.

In the ordinary dances it is customary for a gentleman sometimes to surrender or lend his fair partner to another for some part of the dance for which he is engaged. This favour is, however, seldom granted by the lady to the second comer without having first asked her partner's consent.

On going to the house of his host the guest is usually told to walk up to the top of the house, where is the dressing-room. On entering the room in which the company is assembled, he is struck with the absence of elderly people, and the noise which proceeds from every one endeavouring to talk at the same time—the high-pitched voices of the ladies producing a confusion which could hardly

have been surpassed at the Tower of Babel. The absence of old people and the omnipresence of youth and beauty may be accounted for by the fact that chaperones are almost unknown in American society.

The men being nearly all engaged in business have, during the day, no time to devote to the other sex, hence has arisen by necessity, that self-reliance on the part of the ladies which is so different from the ideas of European society. The same revolution is gradually being worked out in England, although the complete independence of the ladies will never be established in a country where a "leisure class" exists among the men. But American ladies know too well how to take care of themselves ever to need the protection of chaperones or "matrons."

Between the children and parents there exists an implicit confidence. To the young ladies of the family the whole management of the entertainments is confided by their parents. They invite the guests, and arrange all the details. Instances of the parents retiring to rest at an early hour in the evening are not unheard of.

We must not suppose that because there is much noisy merriment at an evening-party in American society therefore the people are wanting in refinement. Far from it. The ladies are probably not so accomplished as their English cousins: few

know any thing about music (for this accomplishment is seldom taught at the private schools), and few can speak any foreign language except those who have travelled. The best-educated girls are not to be found among the most fashionable class; but rather among those who have been trained in the public schools of the States. The latter have time to mature their education, as they do not "come out" into society at so early an age. But for their deficiency in accomplishments the ladies more than atone by their ready wit, their choice of language, their lively manners, their grace and beauty—which even a London or Paris belle could not afford to despise; and in that true politeness which consists in willingness to oblige they have few equals, and no superiors.

The deference paid to women in the United States (although possibly on the decline) is remarkable, as De Tocqueville has observed, "Ils ont un si grand respect pour leur liberté morale, qu'en leur présence chacun veille avec soin sur ses discours, de peur qu'elles ne soient forcées d'entendre un langage qui les blesse. En Amérique une jeune fille entreprend, seule et sans crainte, un long voyage."

And in another place the same author has remarked of the women themselves, "Si l'on me demandait à quoi je pense qu'il faille principalement attribuer la prospérité singulière et la force

croissante de ce peuple, je répondrais que c'est la supériorité de ses femmes."

And one cannot help being struck with the force of character, the intellectual ability, the capacity for business, the high spirit, the courage, and the patriotism of the women.

The American gentleman is as good a type of his class as is to be found in London or Paris; but he has less stiffness of manner. They have no dignities or honours, such as peerages; and good family is held of little account (except in Boston); hence we find that the average American is better dressed than the average Englishman, for his motto seems to be, "Dress, as well as manners, maketh man." Nor does he care to show his pride through the holes of his coat, as certain great English peers are commonly reported to do. In short, dress tells one as much what a man does as what he is; for every one wears that most suited to his vocation, be he a sailor, a soldier, a priest, or a lawyer. He is probably not as well educated as the average English gentleman, for, in the first place, no leisure-class exists, and the position of an idler is hardly recognized; secondly, so many men went to the war at the age of seventeen—left their schools and colleges to fight for their country—and found themselves, at the close of the war, uneducated and obliged to plunge into business at once; thirdly, a man who is engaged all day in the

excitement of commercial speculation, has no time to devote to reading and to improving his mind; and, lastly, as Hawthorne has remarked, "until the war with nature is over on the continent of the New World, the workshop will be the college whose degrees will be most valued." In fact the men in business work so hard, that work becomes second nature to them. The hard work seems to prostrate all their energies, so that they know not how to enjoy a holiday. They "loaf" at the watering-places and summer resorts; and on Thanksgiving Day and other State holidays the lower classes may be seen sitting on the railings in the public gardens gazing on vacancy. On the verandahs of the hotels, also, the agents of the large merchants usually sit, ruminating and chewing tobacco, with their feet above them, supported against a pillar (a habit handed down from the early settlers or pioneers, who, weary of standing all day long at their work in the forest, found relief in the evening by thus supporting their feet). Fortunately tobacco-chewing is gradually decreasing among the people of the United States, and is never seen among gentlemen in the best society.

While talking of a large portion of the day being spent in work, it may be worth while to bear out our statement by relating an anecdote we heard of a New York merchant, who for six years had left his home at 6 a.m., not returning

until 8.30 p.m.—after his children were in bed. On Sundays he would sleep on the hearthrug in his dining-room. From one of these naps he was aroused one day by the voice of a child crying out, "Ma, Ma! quick! there's a *man* in the dining-room!" The child did not know its own father. *Credite, posteri!*

The husbands are content to slave in business, in order that their wives and families may live in ease and affluence. During the summer months, the wives may be seen at the watering-places or other fashionable resorts, while the husbands can only afford to pay them an occasional visit on Sundays, and spend the intervening days of the week at their counting-houses.

But if Americans are not as well educated as Englishmen, they have at least more general intelligence—they "use their intellects." The English, with their Conservative notions, "use their memory first and their reason afterwards;" the Americans are hampered by no traditions—had scarcely a history before the late war—and are prone to change, not because they love it for its own sake, but because they believe that change and advancement often go hand-in-hand. It is impossible for the traveller to converse for five minutes with an American without being struck with this phenomenon. Every American reads the newspapers, and forms his own opinion on political and other sub-

jects, and when asked is willing to give it, but he is never anxious to open any conversation.

But whatever may be the faults and failings of men in America, one vice they are certainly not addicted to—drunkenness. They are constantly accused by the English of being fond of intoxicating drinks. Nothing can be further from the truth. During a ten months' sojourn, we never saw a drunken man. Even among the lower classes this vice is very rare. The climate is very dry, the summers are very hot, and therefore it is physically impossible to abstain altogether; but iced-water is the common beverage. Wine is seldom placed on the table at dinner-time; nor is any apology offered for its absence, for it is assumed that the guests are aware that wine is very expensive; and, secondly, that it is very poor. At a *table d'hôte* the person who has a bottle by his side is usually a foreigner. Drinking at the bars has been almost abandoned by gentlemen; and the phrase, "to liquor-up," is unheard of. At the evening-parties, however, champagne is the ordinary beverage, and flows in great abundance.

The morality of American society generally appears to us to be much more stern than that of the English. A man who transgresses the bounds of decorum in the United States is looked on as a black sheep, to be avoided by all respectable people, and not to be admitted within the

precincts of a gentleman's house ; in England, such transgressions are too often winked at, and transform the transgressor into a hero, as being a man of the world.

Long invitations to parties are never given, and there is some obscurity in the wording of the notes themselves. He is invited "to meet a few friends very sociably," and it often happens that the guest on arriving at the house will find 200 or 300 persons invited to meet him. The number of acquaintances which most Americans have is enormous, and is not confined to any one city ; but this hardly excuses those who invite their friends under false pretences. The consequence of this obscurity is that even Americans are seldom certain in what costume to appear in the evening—much less Englishmen, when travelling. For this reason many Englishmen, even noblemen, have not known how to dress suitably at American entertainments, and have been accused of treating their hosts in the New World discourteously and slightingly.

Introductions at the parties are not absolutely necessary, but are always given gladly when asked for ; on being introduced it is customary to shake hands, and so also on leaving. This is contrary to English etiquette, which allows only a stiff bow on being introduced, and, if the acquaintance prove mutually agreeable, a shaking of hands on separating. This shaking hands, instead of bowing coldly

on being introduced, marks the absence of formality. In fact so anxious are the Americans to give every one a warm welcome that they shake hands as often as they meet, be it ten times a day, until it becomes almost irksome.

Generally speaking the society with which a foreigner meets is not sociable. The Bostonians, however, are exceptional in this respect. They pride themselves on their resemblance to the English in their manners and customs; and in their formal reserve on first acquaintance there is great similarity, but after breaking through the ice the reserve disappears, and their hearts and homes are open to the Englishman. In short, they dispense their hospitality with caution. Although the individual Englishman is sure, provided he have good letters of introduction, to meet with the greatest attention and kindness, yet towards the English collectively, as a nation, there flows a strong undercurrent of bad feeling, the existence of which it is useless to ignore. More than once the writer was told by patriotic Northerners, "I hate your nation, sir; but I like the individuals. Your nation has done all in its power to crush us, and has treated us rather as a dangerous rival than as a daughter. When our rebellion broke out, we only asked for your moral support, believing that as you had always condemned and endeavoured to suppress slavery, you could not refuse in so great a crisis to

support us; and this modest request you not only refused, but even fitted out a privateer and swept our commerce from the seas. For France we care not: her conduct during our rebellion is not worth discussion, but we did expect better things from England." And until England makes some lasting treaty with the United States, which shall satisfy reasonable claims, this feeling will continue to smoulder, and may assume the unpleasant, and even dangerous shape of retaliation in kind when England shall engage in war with any foreign power. But it is most unfortunate that the American statesmen are unable to separate the sentimental from the real damages. Senator Sumner in his famous speech held views so highly theoretical that they appear ridiculous. The Republicans, so long as they remain in office, will do all in their power to avoid collision with England (it is the Democrats, backed by the Irish, who have always been eager to go to war), but the time is, we fear, far distant when this dispute will be amicably settled, if the Government at Washington insists practically not only on a money payment, but also on a humble apology for a wrong which is to a great extent, after all, a mere matter of international law and the result of procrastination.

But, as we observed before, the individual Englishman wherever he goes will meet with unvarying and uniform kindness, even from the poorer

classes. For instance, while we were crossing the prairies, a Californian miner determined to "lay over" at a wayside station to assist us with his advice and his hand to recover a carpet-bag which had been stolen from us by a fellow-passenger, saying, "I promised to be your friend, and now I will prove that I am," and, suiting the action to the word, greatly to his own inconvenience, he spent a night on the plains in our company, and succeeded in recovering our property from the thief, whom he identified, late at night, in the bar of a squatter town.

We said just now that American society is not, generally speaking, sociable, but it is at all events less hampered by conventionalities, and is more easy-going than in England. Where the home-life exists, there is a fortunate combination of simplicity and refinement, such as is seldom met with in English homes. There appears to be more real harmony between the members of the family, and more confidence between the parents and children. Between the husband and wife in the United States there appears to exist a different relation from that which we find in England. The difference may perhaps be accounted for by supposing that in the United States the husband has more regard for his wife's *mind*. Little children are not required to be seen only and not heard, but their opinion is asked (although perhaps not often followed); and thus

self-reliance is inculcated from their earliest years which is of such practical importance in after-life. Mothers place so much confidence in their daughters that they allow them not only to walk and drive alone with gentlemen, but even to correspond with them, their letters not being under the maternal supervision; and gentlemen call on and enjoy a *tête-à-tête* conversation with young ladies at their homes, without ever seeing the parents. But the "muffin" friendships of Canadian life have no hold whatever in the States. These consist generally of an arrangement between a lady and gentleman to devote themselves almost entirely to each other's society for a whole season—to drive together, to walk together, to dance together, in short to do every thing but live together. As a consequence of this peculiar form of Platonic friendship it is said that a man never marries his own, but very often his friend's "muffin," as it is supposed that he knows less of his friend's than of his own "muffin"!

Young ladies "come out" at the age of seventeen, and marry earlier than in European countries; and when married they retire very much from general society. This accounts for the scarcity of chaperones, and hence arises that freedom and independence of American young ladies which in England is falsely supposed to be licence; on the contrary, from this freedom of action spring Platonic friend-

ships between men and women, and a confidence which is never abused.

American ladies are constantly accused of being very extravagant in their dress.

This accusation is doubtless true, for nowhere, even in Paris, will one see such magnificent toilettes as are displayed at the balls and watering-places. But if American ladies do dress extravagantly, at all events, they dress in good taste, and know how to blend colours harmoniously—an art of which English ladies are so often ignorant. And the influence of dress on the art of the future is not to be lost sight of, for, as John Stuart Mill remarks, "the great and continued exercise of thought which all women, who attach any value to dressing *well*, must bestow on their own dress, will go a great way towards achieving respectable results in Art, Science, or Literature." And the American ladies add to the charm of dressing well the greater charm of physical beauty. The average American girl has undoubtedly prettier features than the average English girl. Her figure is not so good; the bright complexions of the English are nowhere seen, nor any striking beauties of the true Saxon type; but the hands and feet of American ladies are very small. It is said that their good looks soon fade; this may be true, but we think the fact can be accounted for by the great extremes of climate, by the mode of life (which is made up of

two gay seasons annually—in the winter in the cities, in the summer at the watering-places), the use of iced-water, hot-rolls, and sweets; and last, but not least, to the dry hot air of the stoves with which the houses are heated in winter.

There is at first sight a very striking resemblance between the French and Americans in the mode of life. Except as regards the dress of the ladies, this resemblance is more superficial than real. The Americans are essentially a commercial, the French a pleasure-seeking people, and in this way the real difference of sentiment and action arises. Probably it is not the similarity but the difference between French and American life which proves so attractive to the latter people, accustomed as they are to hard work in their own country; whereas in England the American will only find the prototype of himself, working just as hard and displaying just as much energy as he himself does when at home.

It struck us forcibly that the type of face of the young American at Harvard scarcely differs at all from that of the English undergraduate; but, on the other hand, the difference is strongly marked between the faces of the scout or servant class in the two countries. This looks as if education tended to tone down the effects of the climate on the physique of the people, or as if the climate has a greater influence on those who live under less favourable conditions, and produces consider-

able deviation from the original type in the lower orders.

At the watering-places and summer resorts the visitors usually lead a very gay life, which contrasts very strongly with that at the sea-side in England. In the first place, the English watering-place is usually one of rest and quiet; those who are worn out with the work of a year come to it for the purpose of recruiting their strength and energies—for "recuperation," as the Americans would say. But an air of decay reigns every where: the lodging-houses are poor, dismal, and dirty; a thread-bare carpet, three-legged chairs, a certain amount of China ornaments which have been mended and re-mended, and on the mantel-piece grotesque figures of fawns and shepherdesses make up the furniture of the "elegant apartment." And, in the second place, grown-up men hardly care to bestow their time on building castles or excavating tunnels with wooden spades in the sand, of perpetually making "ducks and drakes" on the sea, of hunting for specimens for an aquarium among the seaweeds at low tide, or of riding donkeys on the downs. At an American watering-place, however, all is life and activity: the houses (commonly called "cottages," in the pride of humility) are elegantly furnished, and are replete with every comfort and luxury. Small children are kept in the back-ground; and the grown-up

people devote themselves to croquet, driving, sailing, walking, flirting, and party-going. One of their own writers has thus described the extreme fastness of summer life at a watering-place: "It is as if we had been shot out of a cannon and were endeavouring to exchange cards on the way."

And this fastness is not confined to the socialities of the watering-places, but to every phase of life in the States. The contrast between the English and Americans in this particular is not more marked than it is in the difference of *time* in the National Anthems of the two countries: "God save the Queen" is much slower than "Yankee Doodle."

The routine of fashionable life at an American watering-place—Newport, Rhode Island, for instance—is on this wise:—Breakfast is at 9 in the morning; and an hour later the ladies drive out to shop in their basket-carriages (the peculiar feature of which is a large *white* umbrella, as a protection from the sun), or play croquet and flirt under the shade of the trees in their lawns. From midday to 3 in the afternoon the time is spent in paying calls, in bathing, or in resting after the exertion of the previous evening. The ordinary dinner-hour, both in private houses and at the hotels, is 3 p.m., and after dinner the hotel visitors sit under the verandah smoking, talking, and listening to the music (for a band is as much an "institution" at an American summer-hotel as an organ is in a church). At 5 p.m. all who have

carriages (which are too often made conspicuous by armorial bearings and heraldic devices) drive out for two hours, to enjoy the cool air of a summer evening—to see and be seen. The drive at Newport during these hours is as gay as the London parks or the Champs Elysées in the season. Every description of vehicle which the ingenuity of Yankee and European builders has been able to devise may be seen at this hour, from the "buggy" and "carry-all" to the barouche and phaeton, from a one-horse turn-out to a unicorn-team, from a tandem to a four-in-hand, or even sometimes a six-in-hand. The occupants of the carriages usually find plenty of amusement in bowing to their acquaintances and in staring at strangers. At 7 p.m. nearly every one takes tea, and about two hours later evening-parties begin, which the people are wise enough to bring to a close at an earlier hour than is usual in the Old World. At these parties dancing is kept up with great spirit, and always concludes with the inevitable "German," after which the guests separate.

Besides the ordinary evening-parties of the cities, at the watering-places there are also *matinées*, which are balls beginning about three in the afternoon and ending about eight in the evening. At these entertainments the supper-hour is early, usually about five in the afternoon. The suppers are always taken standing; and there is generally

a great scramble among the men round the tables—in short, in their eagerness to get refreshments for their partners such scenes are sometimes witnessed as are disgraceful to any civilized society.

The fruits at these suppers are of course very varied and very fine. The solid food is similar to that which we find in England; for "John Bull, be he English or American, clings so fondly to traditions that," as Washington Irving facetiously remarks, "he would set up a chop-house even at the gates of Paradise." The sweet dishes abound at all the ball-suppers; and a very popular but indigestible compound, known as "chicken-salad," is ever present on such occasions.

In fact the food at every meal throughout the day is very solid. In New England a beef-steak is a standing dish at breakfast, except on Sundays, when the traditional fare is pork and beans; hot rolls or biscuits, "Boston-brown-bread," and hot corn cakes (made of the yellow Indian corn or maize) always find a place on the breakfast-table. As a second course "waffles," or buckwheat cakes, are usually eaten, after being previously sweetened with "maple-syrup." The usual breakfast-hour in the cities is about 7 a.m. in summer, and 7.30 in winter. The dinner in a private family is very much the same in the number and variety of dishes as we find, generally speaking, in England. In the boarding-houses and hotels, however, a small sauce-

plate is invariably placed by the side of each guest for cranberries or other preserved fruit. The ordinary dinner-hour is from 2—3 p.m., and for dinner parties 6—7 p.m. The hour for tea is 7 p.m., at which time hot rolls, preserved fruits in winter, pine-apples and melons in summer, and cold meats appear on the table. But whether it be summer or winter, besides tea or coffee, every one drinks quantities of iced-water at every meal.

The wine most common at supper is Champagne. Other kinds of European wines are very poor and expensive. Sherry costs about 10*s.* a bottle, and at that price is hardly drinkable; claret, about 6*s.* a bottle; port is very seldom seen. The native wines of America are not very palatable; for either sufficient care is not taken in the making of them, or else a country must be thickly settled, in order that there may be no stint of labour, before good wine can be produced in it.

The Catawba wine is the best of the native wines, the Californian port and sherry are far too sweet; and the difficulty in making wines in California is how to get rid of the large excess of alcohol which they contain. Another good native wine is produced on the Hudson, from the Isabella grape. It is not exactly a sherry or a Madeira, but has a very delicious flavour and bouquet. Undoubtedly California is to be the wine-producing region of the United States; but

the science of wine-making is only to be acquired by experience and long practice, and as yet in California it is only in its infancy. The famous mixed drinks of the United States—such as "smashes," "egg-noggs," "cock-tails," "juleps," "punch"—are only to be procured at bars, and are never seen on the table in a private house.

Generally speaking fortunes are larger in the States than in England. There probably are not as many enormously wealthy men as in England, but wealth is more distributed in the States, and there are far more people in affluent circumstances. There is very little desire to save money; people make it faster, and spend it faster; but they know how to spend it on worthy objects, and are very liberal. An instance came under our notice of a gentleman (by no means wealthy) allowing a Frenchman to occupy for two years a house rent-free until he could obtain work and support himself. Another gentleman paid the counsel's fees for a man who was accused of larceny, rather than that he should be undefended in his trial. And in the weekly offertory in the churches the amounts collected are very large.

The sums, too, given in public charities are enormous; for, as we observed before, Americans have more worthy objects on which to spend their money than on endeavouring to get into Congress. They feel that their country is young, and that the

development of it depends very much on individual effort. Boston, for example, has its public Library, its Museum of Natural History, its School of Technology, its hospitals, all built and endowed within a century, and almost all depending for support on private individuals. And in Philadelphia there is a college built by the munificence of one Stephen Girard, a library in course of erection by funds recently bequeathed by one Dr. Rush, and hospitals and other charitable institutions supported by voluntary contributions.

But besides the family-life of Americans in their own houses, there is a phase with which we in England are almost unacquainted — hotel and boarding-house life. This kind of life is greatly in vogue in the United States for many reasons.

In the first place the expenses of housekeeping are enormous, in spite of the many labour-saving contrivances which enable one servant to do the work of two—such as a shaft going the whole height of the house with an opening on each story for the purpose of collecting all the soiled linen in the area, lifts for hoisting fuel and baggage, and even the dinners from the kitchens, pea-shelling and apple-peeling machines—not to mention Artemus Ward's fish-boning machine—and many other appliances.

Secondly, the high rents to which we have already

alluded are a great obstacle in the way of housekeeping.

Thirdly, the trouble of servants—who seem to consider that civility and servility are synonymous. As the best servants are those who have been trained in English houses, or have come from the British provinces in North America, there is a great difficulty in procuring any who are really good, and references are seldom asked for from any. The Irish are the hewers of wood and drawers of water in American households, and indifferent Gibeonites they are. The days have now gone by in which servants were always spoken of as "helps." The word would now be almost meaningless. Before the country was at all thickly settled, and before luxury and refinement had penetrated into the cities, the wife of the farmer used to superintend and at the same time perform most of the menial duties of her household. It often happened that the daughters of a neighbouring farmer came and relieved her of some of her work, lived under the same roof, took their meals at the same table, and were treated as equals (as indeed they were) in every respect. And these were really not the "servants" but the "helps" of the good housewife. But this state of things, except in the backwoods, no longer exists, although Mrs. Trollope in her caricature account of American society leads her reader to the conclusion that the word "help" was

in general use even in her day. At the hotels all the waiters and chambermaids are either Irish or negroes. But few men-servants are employed within the house in private families, probably owing to the expense and the trouble of procuring efficient ones. The family theory of the Old World has never taken root in the New. An English lady tells her maid-servants that they must not wear flowers in their bonnets or veils over their faces, and regulates the intercourse between them and their "followers." The Constitutional maxim of the United States, that all are born with equal rights, is felt even in the domestic relations between master and man, between mistress and maid.

In the fourth place, the American, being gregarious by nature, loves to be in a perpetual crowd and bustle and to do every thing in a wholesale way. These advantages, such as they are, the large hotels offer by giving a daily bill of fare which would astonish if not ruin an English hotel-keeper, and by making a fixed charge for every thing of about 14*s.* a day. The disadvantages of these large hotels are, that if one wants any thing out of the common it must either be paid for exorbitantly or given up; that one must be at one's meals at fixed hours; and that the ground-floor is used as a promenade by all the people of the city, who use it as a place of resort for hearing the latest news, smoking, and writing letters.

This mode of life, besides being destitute of home comfort, is very demoralizing to the children, who run about on the verandahs and along the corridors with unbounded liberty, and are considered by their mothers manly in proportion as they are forward. And the life in the boarding-houses is still more demoralizing than that in the hotels, as its sphere is much narrower. It keeps the woman in insignificance and ensures a uniform dulness for her. At the head of the common dining-table sits the mistress of the house, who doles out to each boarder his portion of food, and takes the place of a mistress of the ceremonies. On her devolve all the cares of housekeeping and the anxiety to provide for a grown-up family not her own; she is willing to please, and always fears to give offence to her boarders (from whom she gets her living), even by giving one a more dainty morsel than another. The meal over, the boarders retire to their own solitary rooms, or to their "stores," and spend the evenings in talking scandal.

We think that we have now briefly described the phases of life in the States with which the traveller is most likely to meet. Ordinary family-life is hard to describe, but revolvers and bowie-knives make a narrative exciting; and for this reason many misrepresentations have been made by the earlier and recent writers. We know from

nearly a year's experience that the Americans are far too sensible to like flattery, and far too true to themselves to submit to abuse, but we are also sure that they have heard of an old adage which says, "Invitat culpam qui præterit."

CHAPTER IV.

FACILITIES FOR TRAVEL.

THERE is no country in the world so amply provided with means of locomotion as the United States, where the welfare of the masses of the people is of so much greater importance than the comfort of a few wealthy individuals.

It will be convenient for us to consider first the means of locomotion in vehicles drawn by horses; secondly, on the navigable waters; and thirdly, on the railroads.

Under our first head we shall include the cabs, omnibuses, and street-cars of the cities and the stages of the West.

The cabs or "hacks" (as they are more commonly called) are usually drawn by two horses. They are comfortably fitted up, with seats for four occupants, and are usually very clean. The most objectionable feature of the "turn-out" is the charioteer, who, being usually a Hibernian by birth,

prides himself on his newly-acquired liberty, which is as apparent in his freedom of speech and his not-select choice of language, as in the exorbitant fares which he considers he may demand with impunity. The horses are usually of very respectable appearance, and keep a happy mean between the jaded animal of the London cab and the pampered horse of the private carriage.

The Americans, always aiming at "the practical," have endeavoured to produce horses famous for their speed as trotters, and with very good results. A horse which accomplishes a mile in two minutes forty seconds is considered a fast horse, and hence the phrase a "regular two-forty" has passed into a proverb.

They consider that horse-racing is a purely aristocratic institution, which aims at no immediately useful results, and can only be encouraged by a wealthy few. Horse-trotting, however, they look upon as a democratic amusement.

The "rule of the road" in America is the same as on the Continent, viz. always to keep on the right-hand side of the road. The fares are usually very high, except where they are regulated, as in Boston, by the municipal government. In New York the extortions of the cabmen are only equalled by the folly of those who submit to them. We have known *3l.* paid for a journey of three miles, and the minimum fare is about *6s.* At the watering-

places the proprietors of hacks endeavour "to make hay while the sun shines," and charge exorbitantly during the season, as at Newport, where 21*s.* for an hour's drive is a usual charge. A company has, however, been formed in New York to build Hansom-cabs, and the fare has, we believe, been fixed by them at about 2*s.* a mile. The wary and travelled man may avoid the annoyance and expense of taking a cab, even though he be encumbered with much luggage, by availing himself of the numerous express companies whose agents are to be found on the steamers and at every railroad station, and in every provincial town. In 1868 3000 express companies were licensed and paid a tax on more than 22,000,000 dollars capital. Of these Adams' Express Company is the most famous, and the most extensive in its operations. Money and valuables, as well as luggage, can be forwarded from any part of the country by merely calling at the office and giving a list and description of the number of articles to be sent. A receipt for them is then tendered, and they are taken from the house or hotel of the owner and deposited at the given address without further annoyance or anxiety. The expense depends on the distance which the parcels are sent, and not on their weight. This company has cars appropriated to its sole use on nearly every railroad in America east of the Mississippi. On the west of that river, Wells, Fargo, & Co.'s

express monopolizes all the business. Some of the other and less-known companies are Harnden's, the New York and Boston, and Dodd's Express.

Having sent on his luggage by this conveyance, the traveller has only to take a street-car, at an outlay of a few cents, to his destination. The system of through-baggage-checking does away, to some extent, with the necessity for using an express company on the ordinary lines of rail-road travel. The convenience of these express companies is somewhat detracted from by their high charges, for the community have to pay twice over—once to the railroad companies (of which they are parasites), and once to the agents of the expresses.

The omnibuses of New York (for we are not aware that they are in common use elsewhere) are heavy lumbering vehicles on large wheels, capable of seating about sixteen persons inside, but none by the driver on the outside. There are no conductors; but the door is closed by means of a leather thong which passes through a round hole in the roof and is held in the driver's hand. Thus no one can enter or leave the omnibus without informing the driver of his movements by pulling at this thong as he opens the door. The fare, which is always the same irrespective of the distance, is handed by each passenger, as he takes his seat, through this round hole, and the attention

of the driver or conductor (for the man on the box combines both these offices) is arrested by a bell being rung by the passenger as he pays his fare, which is ten cents—the fares by the ordinary street-cars being four cents less.

The stage-coaches which we find in the West do not differ materially from these street-omnibuses, except in the enormous strength of the springs and their general build. They seat about nine inside-passengers, and as many outside. The strength of the springs does not astonish us when we remember that macadamized roads are unknown even in the neighbourhood of the eastern cities. "Corduroys," or roads made of faggots of wood placed at intervals of about two feet (the space between being filled up with the softest mud), are the primitive roads of a new country, and of course the coaches are perpetually "stogged" (if we may use a word still prevalent in the west of England). Where the highways are so rough the speed attained cannot be great, and seldom exceeds six miles an hour.

But every city of a certain size has railways along every street on which run the street or "horse-cars," as they are called in distinction from the "steam-cars" or railway trains drawn by locomotives. These "horse-cars" are essentially democratic in their nature: the fares are so low as to put their accommodation within the reach of the

poorest classes, about 3*d.* for the greatest distance. In the morning you detect the business-men going to their counters; in the evening the shoppers returning to their homes laden with paper parcels. The rear platform is usually stormed by this latter class, but there is no distinction of persons within. All are huddled together, without regard to age or sex, so closely that there is scarcely any room for the interchange of civilities; for when all the seats, which run lengthwise on either side of the car, are full, as many more people as are seated are thrust in and compelled to stand, holding on with one hand to thongs hanging from the roof for that purpose. There are no outside-passengers on the roof. About twenty-five are crowded into the inside of the cars, which are drawn either by two or three horses. Above the head of the driver, who stands on the front platform, is a bell which is rung by a thong passing through the whole length of the car to the rear platform on which the conductor stands.

The cars are built without a pole, and are stopped instantly by the driver screwing down a brake. The horses are attached simply by traces which the driver unhooks as soon as he has reached the end of his journey; then he leads his animals round to the other end, hooks them on, mounts what had been the conductor's platform, and is ready to start on the return journey with a fresh load.

The rails on which the wheels run are those technically known as *plate rails*, for they have a flat surface two inches wide for the use of private carriages, which are usually built with their wheels the same distance apart as those of the cars.

In Philadelphia the street-car system has nearly reached perfection, and for obvious reasons. Philadelphia is laid out in squares throughout its entire length and breadth. There are no hills, and, in the city proper, not even any rising ground. The same car which runs up one street will run down the next parallel street, cutting on its way the other lines of railroads which are at right angles to its course in the other streets.

A system of exchange or transfer-tickets has been adopted, by means of which the passenger, by paying one and the same fare, is enabled to travel over different lines, owned by different companies. These companies pay dividends to the shareholders of about 10 per cent. per annum. They issue tickets for five, ten, or twenty journeys at once at a greatly reduced rate. The loudest complaints made against these street-railroads come from the wealthy class, who assert that their carriages are jarred and shaken, and the wheels soon worn out, by the frequent crossing and getting on and off the track to make room for the approaching cars—a complaint which was made in London against the experimental street-railroads laid down in Picca-

dilly some years ago, which consequently were soon removed.

The same complaints will soon, no doubt, be heard again when the company whose Bill is before Parliament shall have obtained leave to lay down their rails through the crowded and somewhat narrow thoroughfares of Oxford Street and the Strand.

Most of the American cities are built on the banks of some sheet of water—usually a navigable river, and often on a tongue of land between two such rivers. These rivers are far too wide to be spanned by bridges, which would also impede the free passage of large ships; consequently ferry-boats are as much an institution of the New World as the street-cars. From the wharves of New York the traveller gets the best idea of the wonderful commercial activity of its people. He will see from five in the morning until midnight the ferry-boats starting forth, three or four at a time, from the different stages, and crossing and recrossing to and from Jersey city on one side and Brooklyn on the other.

These ferry-boats are painted white and built on the same model (for, as we have observed before, a monotony seems to pervade the society, the nomenclature, and the architecture, whether of houses or ships, in the New World), and take from fifteen to twenty vehicles, horses and all, under cover.

The boat is usually divided into four compartments running through the whole length and open at either end. The two centre ones are devoted to the horses and vehicles; the two outer ones to the foot-passengers—the "ladies'" cabin being on one side and the "gents'" cabin on the other. At either end of the boat is a rudder, so that the necessity for turning round to go on bows-forward is avoided. The bows of the boats dove-tail into the landing-stages, and are firmly fastened by a system of chains and levers, which hold the boat in any required position and raise it to any given level. By this means whole railroad trains are put on board the ferry-boat—which has tramways laid through its entire length—and deposited on the further side of a river without any great loss of time, as the iron rails on the landing-stage exactly correspond with and fit into those on the boat. The fare for foot-passengers is about 1*d.* for a single passage, and much less if a packet of tickets is bought at once. The engines work above-board (for the whole boat is roofed over, and on the roof is the steerer's box), and remind one of the Cornish pumping-engines, or of a huge gallows in perpetual motion. Nearly all the American fresh-water steamers have engines of this description, instead of oscillating cylinders, as the cost of construction is much diminished thereby. Screw-steamers on the rivers are, we believe, unheard of.

Besides these ferry-boats there are many river steamers of astonishing size and magnificence, which well deserve the name of "*floating palaces.*" We will give a brief description of one of the North or Hudson River day-boats. It is 417 feet long, 80 wide, and has three decks. From each deck there are doors leading to a verandah which runs round the ship on the outside, and balconies on the inside, on which many of the state-rooms open. The windows have no deadlights, but are more like the windows of a railroad carriage, in their size and appearance, than of an ocean steamer. It is larger than the largest ocean Cunard steamship. Its saloons are furnished as sumptuously as any drawing-room, having prints, expensive photographs, stereoscopes, &c., on the tables. It has bed-room accommodation for 600 persons, and will carry, they say, 3000. One saloon, surrounded with cabins, is about 150 feet long, 20 high, and lighted with magnificent clustered *gas* chandeliers. The dining-rooms are elaborately provided with every thing seen in a first-class hotel. Crowds of civil negroes in spotless white jackets wait at the tables, which are ornamented with artificial flowers. There are, of course, extensive kitchens, cellars, and ice-houses. Ornamental fountains or taps of iced water are dispersed through the ship. There are bars where one can order any kind of drink one pleases, hairdressers' shops, book-stalls, &c. Large mirrors,

soft-piled carpets, and the most exquisite cleanliness (even the door of the stokehole is of white panel with white china handles, and quite clean) entirely remove the idea of one's being on board a river steamer. Other appliances for comfort and convenience are perfect. The washing apparatus is as good as that in a London club-house. Smoking is strictly prohibited, except in certain portions of the ship. A great drawback to the comfort of the steamers is the time which elapses before a ticket or the key of the state-room can be obtained at the office. All the passengers have to stand in a long line and pass in slow succession before the office-window, within which is an official dressed in a gay uniform, who considers that, being as good as and the equal of his neighbour by birth, he is entitled by virtue of his office to assume a superiority. There is no noise or bustle. The pace at which these steamers move through the water is prodigious. With the tide, the one we were in would go upwards of twenty miles an hour. The fares are moderate, being six dollars (about eighteen shillings) for the journey and use of a state-room.

In order to make travelling on the sea as agreeable as possible, the Sound and Fall River steamers running from New York to Newport and Fall River are of still larger proportions than these. Their draught of water is nine and a half

feet; horse-power, 2000; diameter of cylinders, 110 inches; speed, eighteen knots with 15*lbs.* of steam; running expenses, 900 dollars a night. They carry in their gas-holders on the upper-deck 5000 feet of gas, of which 2000 is consumed on every trip (this line of boats only runs at night) by their 180 burners; tonnage, 3000. They have polished floors of dark and light coloured woods, are painted white picked out with gold, and are said to have cost rather more than 150,000*l.* apiece. There is on this line of steamers a "celebrated gold bugle, brass, string, and reed band," which plays a selection of the most popular music for one hour before leaving the dock, and on their passage from the stream to the Sound.

Later in the evening there is a promenade concert by the reed and string bands. The following programme will serve as a specimen of the quality of the music on such occasions:—

PART FIRST.

1. Grand March—"Lucia" . . . . *Donizetti.*
2. Overture—"Fra Diavolo" . . . . *Auber.*
3. Galop—"Blue Jack" . . . . *A. P. H.*
4. Waltz—"Leap Year" . . . . *Strauss.*
5. Aria—"Falstaff" . . . . . *Balfe.*
6. Polka—"Ariel" . . . . . *Holden.*

PART SECOND.

7. Polka Redowa . . . . . *Amos.*
8. Lancers—"Grand Duchess" . . . *Offenbach.*

9. Galop—"Puck Wudjie" . . . . . *Strauss.*
10. Waltz—"Delaware Klange" . . . . . *Gung'l.*
11. "When the Swallows," &c. . . . . *Abt.*
12. Grand National Medley . . . . *T. Comer.*

The management being determined that nothing in the mode of transit of first-class passengers shall surpass this line on a scale of grandeur and magnificence, adds this most expensive attraction and novelty, the engagement of the first orchestra of the country, which will be attached to each steamer on its passage.

But this line of steamers is quite exceptional in size and magnificence, and has for its manager a man of no less note than James Fisk, jun., of Gold-room notoriety.

The boats on the Mississippi are more famous for their propensity to blow up than for the magnificence of their fittings. The captains of rival steamers are addicted to racing with an enormous pressure of steam, which they keep up by placing a ham on each of the fires and the stoker on the safety-valves.

We escaped a premature end by changing our plans at the eleventh hour and going by train instead of on a steamboat, which, a few hours after, was blown to pieces; and a friend of ours on another occasion was equally fortunate in escaping a similar fate.

Those, however, who should be less provident than ourselves will do well, if they find themselves

on board one of these Mississippi boats and a race with an opposition steamer in prospect, to follow the advice once given by a gentleman to Sir Charles Lyell when he was about to embark on one of the great rivers of the West:—

"'When the other passengers are cheering the captain, who is sitting on the safety-valve to keep it down with his weight, go as far as you can from the engine, and lose no time, especially if you hear the captain exclaim, "Fire up, boys—put on the resin!" Should a servant call out, "Those gents who have not paid their passage, please go to the ladies' cabin," obey the summons without a moment's delay, for then an explosion may be apprehended.' 'Why to the ladies' cabin?' said I. 'Because it is the end of the boat, and they are getting anxious for the personal security of those who have not yet paid their dollars, being, of course, indifferent about the rest. Therefore never pay in advance; for should you fall overboard during the race, and the watch cries out to the captain, "A passenger overboard!" he will ask, "Has he paid his passage?" and if he receives an answer in the affirmative he will call out, "Go ahead!"'"

We now pass on to the most developed and best organized means of transit in the United States, viz. that on the railroads in cars drawn by locomotives. In the matter of railroad travelling the English are far behind the Americans in

regard to comfort and convenience, in short, in every respect except in the matter of speed.

The speed of the ordinary trains is far inferior to that on English lines, for they seldom exceed twenty-five miles an hour; but, on the other hand, the trains are usually punctual, and seldom stop more than a few seconds at a "wayside" station.

The roads are laid differently from ours. The sleepers are always transverse, never longitudinal, and are made of the roughest unhewn pieces of timber, to which the rails are fastened by spikes only. Thus there is a perpetual jolting motion as the wheels of the carriages bound from one sleeper to the next, for the intervals of two feet or more are never filled up.

There are very few bridges over or under the highways or public roads, but level crossings instead. The unwary are warned of the approach of a train by the ringing of the bell on the engine, and also by a large signboard on which are the words painted in clear characters, "Railroad crossing.—Look out for the engine when the bell rings." In many of the cities the trains go through the streets; there being no railing or fence between the railroad and the carts and carriages which drive along by the side of the line. Nor are there any fences to prevent the cattle from straying on the railroads in the country; and to this defect we may attribute many of the numerous accidents

in travelling and the large number of killed and wounded passengers.

Where the navigation of the rivers would be impeded by bridges there are ferry-boats to carry the train bodily across, as on the Mississippi at St. Louis, on the Missouri, and on the Connecticut River near New Haven. Nearly all the railroad bridges are built of wood, and are often of great length, and have the appearance of trellis-work. They bend and shake visibly as the train passes over.

The policy of the Government of the United States has been to encourage the construction of new lines of railroad, by grants of money and land, without considering the prospects of a dividend to the shareholders. In the United States the cost of construction varies from about 4000*l.* to 8000*l.* a mile; in England the average cost per mile of the now existing lines of railroad is about 33,000*l.*; nor is much money spent, even in the large cities, on the depôts or stations, which are miserably poor, Chicago is the only exception to the general rule. The lines are nearly always single, and the width of the gauge is six feet, being a mean between the four feet eight inches of the narrow, and the seven feet one inch of the broad English gauge. Consequently very little land is required for the purposes of the road. Moreover, railroads in the United States are cut through uncultivated regions of

country. They aim at going from one commercial centre to another, and care not for the small traffic of the intermediate districts. In European countries railroads are, of necessity, made through populous regions, and often take a circuitous route in order to embrace large cities. In the States the railroads are the highways of emigration, and wherever a line is made a population speedily follows.

The Union Pacific road is now an accomplished fact; and a short history of it may be interesting, as illustrating the eagerness with which the American people embrace any new and great undertaking. The necessity of a road to connect the Eastern and Western States was sufficiently demonstrated during the late war. There were not wanting men to suggest the establishment of an independent empire on the Pacific coast: nothing was necessary but means of access to transport a large population into the new Western States. Indian wars were threatened, and the cost of transporting troops and supplies to the frontier posts was immense.

The Government did not, however, wish to take all the responsibility, but resolved to give its aid in the most careful manner to a corporation of such private individuals as were willing to invest some of their own private means in the construction of a road. The original projectors and shareholders have

cleared 750 per cent. on their capital. The policy adopted by the Government at Washington in the matter of the Pacific road has formed a precedent which has frequently been acted upon since that time. During the first session of General Grant's administration, from March 4th to April 9th, 1869, twenty-three Bills were introduced into Congress to provide for the construction of 14,050 miles of railroads, and 227¼ million acres were granted to the companies which applied for State aid, besides, in some instances, large grants of money. This illustrates the policy to which the United States' Government will in future lend itself in encouraging the indefinite extension of railroads.

It is of course questionable how far money subsidies, and how far grants of land, may be offered without abuse by a government — even though the aim and the result of such grants be the development of a country—and if railways are proper subjects for State intervention.

In 1836 Massachusetts first committed herself to the policy of subsidizing railroad companies. At that time this step was considered exceptional, but now it is regarded as a precedent which has more than once drawn the State into unprofitable speculations, and rendered it liable for twenty-four million dollars. If the same result attend the central government in its subsidizing policy, it will in a few years be involved in the affairs of many hopelessly

insolvent corporations. The railroads of America seem to be obeying the natural law of gravitation: the larger and more powerful corporations absorbing the weaker. Ten years ago the New York Central was composed of ten independent links. These are now welded into one powerful company, with perpetual leases over and the control of 5000 miles of road. The amalgamation of the railroads was effected by the companies themselves, in order to check the growing power of the express companies.

The locomotives on the American railways are far more powerful and much larger than those on English lines. Their singular appearance to the traveller's eye is owing to the peculiar shape of the spark-catcher attached to the funnel, which resembles a huge inverted cone. It is supposed to prevent the escape of sparks; for wood, and not coal, is commonly used as fuel. The engine-driver and fireman (of which there are usually two) are protected from the severe cold of the winter and the heat of summer by a hut with glass windows. But in England no such protection is provided, and the men themselves object, on the ground of being encumbered in the use of their sight and limbs; though an American driver said if he worked for an English company who would not give him a covering of the kind, he would have one built at his own expense.

The "cow-catchers" are another peculiarity of American locomotives. These are shaped like ploughshares and fastened on in front of the engine, not in order to catch the cows, but to thrust them off from the rails—which they do most effectually after breaking their legs.

On the boiler is hung a huge bell, moved by a string which passes into the hands of the driver. It is rung before approaching every crossing or depôt (station), or in going through crowded streets. The whistle is not shrill and high-pitched as in England, but gives forth a deep hoarse note, which is probably audible at greater distances. These latter peculiarities are rendered necessary by the condition of the roads, which, as we said before, are not fenced off, have many level crossings, and are a highway for foot-passengers, for in America every one uses his intellect, and runs the risk of his life when he breaks the law, but in England the life of the subject is protected by the law, and the Government interferes to do for them that which they are unable to do for themselves.

The ordinary cars run on eight wheels, which are not attached at even distances to the body of the carriage as in England, but are fixed in a frame-work (at either end of the cars), which is fastened by means of a pivot, as are the front wheels of a carriage, to the upper part. By this means sharp curves are easily surmounted, and on

the roughly and hastily built roads of the New World this is at once a safer and pleasanter plan than our own, for as the experienced traveller takes his seat in the car equidistant from the wheels, he avoids all the minor jolts arising from inequalities in the rails themselves, and only perceives a long swinging motion. The technical name of these frames for the wheels is "bogies."

Primâ facie there is no distinction of class in the cars on the railroads in the United States: all, be they high or low, rich or poor, pay one and the same fare; but those who desire to enjoy the greater comforts of drawing-room or sleeping cars, pay a certain sum for every twenty-four hours over and above the ordinary fare. The ordinary cars are not to be taken as an example of the perfection which travelling by railroad has reached in the United States. They much resemble, on a larger scale, the second-class carriages now in use on the Swiss and German railways. There is the usual passage down the centre, with seats on either side of scarcely sufficient width for two full-grown persons (and for such they are intended), so low as to form no support whatever for the back (being similar to those in modern churches), and so close together that the passengers' knees are wedged into the back of the seat in front. These cars are about forty feet in length and eight wide, and hold about seventy people. At either end of

the car is a door, and a platform outside with steps leading to the ground. This is the only entrance to the interior, and side-doors (such as we have in our compartment carriages) are unknown. Every one sits facing the engine, for all the seats are moveable, and thus the unpleasantness of travelling backwards is avoided; but in England, supposing a carriage to be full, half its occupants must travel backwards, and only four passengers (that is, about half) can be sufficiently near the window to obtain a view of the scenery.

These cars are heated almost to suffocation by a large stove at either end; but this is more effective, if not more comfortable, than the hot-water bottles of the English railroads, to which only the privileged first-class passengers are entitled without paying extra. It seems to us that American ideas of comfort are to some extent conventional. Americans are gregarious, but not sociable by nature. Hence they delight to give large parties, to live in large hotels, to travel in open railroad carriages. But the "solemn silence" which prevails in these open cars is at once astonishing and depressing. It illustrates an often-noticed peculiarity of Americans—their natural melancholy. Whether this silence and demureness arises from the close atmosphere of the cars, which tends to produce sleepiness, we know not; but sociability is quite impossible in these ordinary

cars, where only two can sit together, and where every one can hear every remark of his neighbour.

One car a little better than the rest is usually set apart for ladies, and for those gentlemen who have ladies with them. In the West a provision of this kind is not only desirable, but highly necessary, as most of the "gents" who travel West are the refuse of Europe going forth to seek their fortunes.

The smoking-car is generally monopolized by a debauched, tobacco-chewing set of roughs, and is even without spittoons. The drawing-room and palace cars are, however, quite modern inventions; and of them we will speak next in order. The former are about sixty feet in length and eleven in width, and approach more nearly to English railroad-carriages than any other form of carriage in use in the United States (except one car which is attached to the night-train from Boston to Newport, and is built precisely on the model of an English first-class carriage), for they tend towards exclusiveness, inasmuch as they are divided into compartments for four or eight persons. At one end is a saloon furnished with sofas, arm-chairs, and spittoons; at the other end are lavatories. The compartments are between these, but have only a window on one side, as the door is on the other and opens into the passage. The interior of these compartments is similar in plan to an Eng-

lish first-class carriage, but far superior in its fittings. Of the magnificence of these cars we can give no adequate idea except by saying that one we saw on the Erie railroad was said to have cost 8000*l.* sterling.

The "silver palace-cars" are probably so called on account of the electro-plated rails outside and the enormous number of mirrors inside. On the Western railroads these cars have entirely supplanted the old-fashioned sleeping-cars which are used only by night.

These palace-cars are well and expensively fitted up, and are used by day for sitting, by night for sleeping in. They are the property not of the railroad company on whose line they run, but of a distinct firm, and are the subjects of well-defined agreements. The passengers pay an extra fare for the use of them of about twelve shillings for every twenty-four hours, and the proprietors are in some way paid out of the surplus. To each car is attached a special servant, who is paid by the proprietors but does not interfere with the ordinary conductor. Some of these cars are sixty-five feet in length, and most of them eleven feet in width, so that there is plenty of room. Each has a separate name, such as "Salt Lake City," "Promontory," "Sacramento," "Evening Star," &c.

As in the ordinary day-cars, at each end is a platform and door. The door opens into a lobby

with polished-walnut walls, stained-glass windows, glass doors, steward's room, lavatory, &c. From this apartment another door opens into the saloon. An aisle runs down the centre, and on either side are seats of sufficient width for two persons which are arrayed *vis-à-vis* and *dos-à-dos* alternately.

By day these cars seem to the uninitiated to have many useless contrivances. When nine o'clock comes the mystery is solved. The process of bed-making then begins, or at a time when the train has stopped for supper and the passengers are in the restaurants.

Beneath the seats are boxes which contain a vast supply of linen, blankets, and pillows. The mattresses are usually stowed away in an upper berth kept for the purpose. Each compartment (called a "section") is separated at night from the adjoining one, and is divided into an upper and a lower berth, the former about five feet from the floor. the latter on the level of the seats used by day.

These berths are screened from view by a curtain which hangs from the roof on either side of the central passage. In short, when arranged for the night, they resemble the berths in a ship's cabin. There is only one objection that we see to the arrangement of sleeping-cars, that none are set apart for ladies only.

At a certain hour in the morning every one has

to get up or "turn out" to enable the servants to reconvert the sleeping-car into one for day-travel. The passenger is then able to repair to the lavatory and complete his toilet, as far as is consistent with the oscillating motion of the car—which makes shaving a dangerous operation. During the night his boots are cleaned by the coloured servants, and he appears at breakfast time more or less respectable in his personal appearance. For these and other services it is customary to give a few pence to the servant every morning.

There is no doubt that we ought to import much that is good of the American system of railroad travelling into England. The English have not of course such pressing need for sleeping-cars as the Americans have. The latter found it impossible to traverse between sunrise and sunset the enormous distances between their cities, and were anxious to economize time by travelling at night (without losing rest) and working by day. Hepworth Dixon has drawn out at some length the comparative size of the United States and of other countries, where he says, "In England we have no lines of sufficient length, no areas of sufficient width, to convey an idea of its size. Our longest line is that running from the Land's End to Berwick—a line which is some miles shorter than the distance from Washington to Lexington. Our broadest valley is that of the Thames, the whole of which would

lie hidden from sight in a corner of the Sierra Madre. The State of Oregon is bigger than England; Texas would be larger than France if France had even the frontier of the German Rhine. If the United States were parted into equal lots, they would make fifty-two kingdoms as large as England, fourteen empires as large as France. . . . From Eastport to Browneville is further than from London to Tuat in the Great Sahara; from Washington to Astoria is further than from Brussels to Kars; from New York to San Francisco is further than from Paris to Bagdad. Again, take the length of the rivers as a measurement of size. A steamboat can go ninety miles up the Thames, two hundred miles up the Seine, five hundred and fifty miles up the Rhine. In America the Thames would be a creek, the Seine a brook, the Rhine a local stream, soon lost in a mightier flood. . . The Mississippi is five times longer than the Rhine, the Missouri three times longer than the Danube, the Columbia is four times longer than the Scheldt. From the sea to Fort Snelling the Mississippi is ploughed by steamers a distance of 2131 miles, yet she is but the second river in the United States. So the lakes would be considered inland seas in Europe. Thus the Salt Lake in Utah has a surface of 2000 square miles; Geneva has only 330. Yorkshire would disappear in Lake Erie. No doubt, then, can be felt as to the size of this

great country—and size, in the long run, becomes the measure of political power."

Much ignorance prevails among the English as to distances in the United States. We, ourselves, were asked by an educated lady, as we were leaving England for Boston, to take a parcel to a clergyman at New Orleans, "for," said she, "the two cities are very near each other." It will not be amiss, therefore, if we give the distances of a few of the principal cities and watering-places of America from New York:—

	MILES.		MILES.
Albany, N. Y.	150	New Orleans	1470
Baltimore, Md.	186	Newport, R. I.	160
Boston, Mass.	240	Niagara	440
Buffalo, N. Y.	423	Philadelphia, Pa.	90
Cave City, Ky.	1030	Pittsburg, Pa.	340
Charleston, S. C.	800	Providence, R. I.	112
Chicago	962	Quebec, Canada	800
Cincinnati, O.	740	Richmond, Va.	360
Cleveland, O.	625	Salt Lake City, U. T.	2500
Columbus, O.	530	Saratoga, N. Y.	180
Detroit, Mich.	670	St. Louis, Mo.	1080
Harrisburg, Pa.	160	San Francisco, Ca.	3200
Long Branch, N. J.	34	Washington, D. C.	228
Lake George	220	White Mountains, N. H.	300
Montreal	630		

The conductors are the worst feature of American railroad travel. Their duties are to collect the tickets (which they do between the stations while

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the train is in motion), to issue tickets, to keep order, and to supply besides the place of porters and brakesman. The absence of porters is much felt, as the hack drivers frequently refuse to lend a helping-hand in removing the passengers' luggage from the street into the depôt. The conductors wear no uniform, and are not easily distinguished from ordinary passengers. They are the most unbearable of petty tyrants. Reigning supreme and without rivals in the cars, they seem to consider that they are the benefactors and not the servants of the public; and it is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain a civil answer to any question from one of these surly officials.

In private life Americans submit to an amount of tyranny which in political life would be quite unbearable; but the quiet submission of every one to treatment of this kind is astonishing. We can only account for this phenomenon as we have once before, by supposing that where all are equal (theoretically at least) the addition of any office confers a superiority on the holder over his former compeers. Englishmen, on the other hand, have always been, from the time of Magna Charta downwards, jealous of their rights; but the Americans seem to consider that they must obey the "powers that be" without complaining, and that resistance or protest implies an inability to endure as much as others.

But the conductor is not the only *habitué* of the cars. There is besides a boy who brings round at stated intervals papers, books, sweets, apples, iced-water, &c., with which he seeks to tempt the mental and bodily appetite of the passenger. These boys are quite a study. They are not to be found at the stations, but they inhabit the cars. Each has a large chest which represents his home, in which he keeps his wares. At intervals of half an hour he goes round, first with fruit, next with illustrated papers, and then with magazines and books which he distributes among the passengers and leaves in their possession just long enough for them to get interested in a story, and then he either sells or collects them and retires to his chest. This custom of perusing the books and papers which the boy leaves on the seat with the hope of effecting a sale is not infrequently extended by the rougher passengers of the Western States to the books of private individuals. We remember a Californian miner (with a formidable bowie-knife and revolver in his belt) taking up a valuable book of ours, thumb-marking it, reading it at his leisure, passing it on to his friend and returning it to us at the end of the day with a request that we would sell it to him for 50 cents.

But this is only a form of liberty—and a very healthy form; and if the rough Westerner is inclined to take liberties yet he does so in ignorance,

and is willing to help his friends in need. He will take your steak from your plate at the buffet, but he will give you his whisky-bottle on the prairie.

In fact, railway-cars are looked upon by sharp Yankees as a first-rate place for doing a "trade." The writer was once offered by an American who sat opposite him in a drawing-room car a ticket for their destination at a reduced rate. He offered to take it if it would be available for his return on the following day. Being answered in the negative, he inquired how it was his neighbour had one for sale, when the latter explained to him that "he guessed he had a corpse in the baggage-car, and they'd made him take a ticket for it." He replied to the question how he intended to avoid paying the money a second time if he parted with the ticket, by mentioning that the company had given him a receipt for his "baggage" and the money paid for it at the same time. Whether the "baggage" consisted of a relation, or whether the trader belonged to the undertaking persuasion did not transpire.

To return from this digression to ordinary railroad travelling. We find an excellent system in vogue for taking care of the luggage known as "baggage-checking." Each article has a pass with a number attached to it by means of a leather thong. A small pass with a corresponding number is given to the owner of the luggage before

he starts, so that he has as many checks as he has articles of luggage. The name of the station at which he stops is merely chalked on each article.

On arriving at his destination he presents the checks and receives his luggage, unless he requires to leave it at the station, in which case he gives no instructions, but the company's servants put it into the "cloak-room" and keep it for twenty-four hours without charge. After that the charge for demurrage is about four-pence a day for each parcel.

This system of baggage-checking also prevails among express companies and on steam-boats; and on the railroads luggage can be "checked through" over any number of different lines. The companies are held responsible for any luggage that has once been checked, consequently instances of miscarriage are very rare.

A rope or wire runs along the centre of each carriage through the whole length of the trains, which forms an unbroken communication between the passengers and guard, or between the guard and engine-drivers. In English carriages the directions are so complicated where communication has been established as to be worthy of a madman. The passengers are told either to break a glass, pull a handle, and then some one will telegraph for assistance; or to put their heads outside the carriage

windows and pull at a rope which passes along above his head—at the imminent risk of his life as he passes under a bridge or goes through a tunnel. All these complications are avoided by the American arrangements.

Passengers' tickets are to be obtained not only at the stations, but also at offices scattered all over the cities in the most convenient "location.' The different railroad companies have their offices at these places and render them conspicuous by the brilliant signboards which cover the fronts of the houses. The tickets issued are available not only on the day of issue, but for one calendar month, or even till used, and allow the passenger to "stop over" as often as he pleases at any intermediate stations. The advantages of this privilege to the public are obvious, and the crush and scramble at the pigeon-hole in the stations when the train is about to start are avoided. Those passengers who do not take their tickets before entering the cars pay a small premium in addition to their fare to the conductor. Those who refuse to produce their tickets when demanded, or to pay the fare, are summarily ejected from the car. We ourselves saw a drunken man thus put out, late in the afternoon, on the prairie far from any houses, because he had no ticket and refused to pay. In this way the inconvenience, delay, and expense of legal proceedings are avoided.

The fares vary in different parts of the country. Around Boston the fare is about 1*d.* a mile On lines diverging from New York about 2*d.*, and in the South about 3*d.* a mile. On the Pacific railroad the fares are exceptionally high, averaging about 4*d.* a mile.

All the stores or shops in American cities are covered with brightly-painted advertisements, for each story or floor is occupied by a different firm, and each firm covers the outside of the walls with—nay, often hangs across the street—advertisements. So the railroad companies generally occupy the ground-floor and advertise their own lines, some as the "old and reliable, short and cheap," others as the "great broad-gauge double track," others as conveying the passengers for "861 miles without change of cars, and 1200 miles with only one change," and others as running "twelve-wheel coaches," which are supposed to be less sensible to the unevennesses of the road and have more springs.

Every company issues its own time-tables, with maps which delineate only their own and those lines which are worked in connexion with them. The routes of all other lines are carefully omitted and their existence ignored.

Besides the facilities offered to passengers by the railroad companies there are the facilities provided for the conveyance of luggage or freight. The

"time-freights" were first organized in 1858 by the railroad companies themselves to check the rapid growth of the express companies, who were usurping their legitimate business. At first the managers endeavoured to appropriate the profits which arose from these time-freights instead of paying them into the common fund of the company. This was prevented by the uprightness of one man of influence. This action on his part led to the formation in 1865 of "coloured lines," as they are called. Certain contracting roads between the East and West established lines, all the cars of which were to be numbered and distinguished by an uniform colour. The best known of these are the Blue, the White, the Red, the Star, and Empire lines, and some others. They were to transport freights from any point of reception to any point of delivery on the connecting roads, and each road was to contribute a quota of cars in proportion to its mileage and traffic. A clearing-house was established for the collection and disbursement of money, and for keeping a record of the miles run by the cars of the various roads in the combination. A small percentage on the capital invested was charged for wear and tear, and a balance was then struck.

But owing to the great competition between the railroads the price of freights fluctuated enormously. Thus last year the price between New

York and Chicago — a distance of nearly 1000 miles — varied from $5 to $37.60 per ton, and between New York and St. Louis—1080 miles—from $7 to $46 per ton, while within the last three years the Erie railway has carried goods to Chicago at as low a rate as $2 a ton, and from this risen to $37; the dollar in all these cases being worth about three shillings of English money.

Great evils result to the public from too much competition between the companies; for usually competing lines seek the same centres through different districts. Their competition is confined to the trade of such centres, and all deficiencies in revenue are to some extent levied on those who occupy the districts which are uncompeted for.

What will be the future limit of these perpetual combinations we cannot say, but before the Government of the United States there has sprung up a difficult problem which it will require all its energy to solve. Already — once at least in crushing slavery, which was upheld by a combination of wealthy individuals—the powers of the Government have been taxed and its sinews strained almost to the utmost limits of endurance.

We have endeavoured to sketch in outline the principal means of locomotion which have been adopted in the United States. We do not intend to say that their system is perfect, but we assert without hesitation that England is far behind the New

World in this respect; and we cannot but admire the energy of a people in opening up and developing by this means the resources of a vast country which 100 years ago was only a colony with scarcely a sufficient population to support itself and almost dependent for supplies on the mother country.



CHAPTER V.

NEW YORK TO NIAGARA.

THE usual route taken by a foreigner starting from New York for a journey through the United States is by the Hudson river to Albany, from which place various lines diverge to Niagara, Chicago, Saratoga, Lake Champlain, &c. This town, the capital of New York State, is reached from New York city either by steamer on the Hudson or by the Hudson River railroad, which runs by the side of the water and is one of the best of the American lines, having the advantage, unusual in America, of a double line of rails. The former mode is far preferable to the latter, especially in summer; and, as the local guide-books truthfully mention in a burst of enthusiasm, "a man may as well visit Naples and forget Vesuvius, or go to Rome and not see St. Peter's, as come to New York and fail to voyage up the Hudson," though it is generally admitted in

America that finer and grander scenery is to be found in Europe than in the eastern United States. In California, the Rocky Mountains, and New Mexico, however, some of the most sublime mountain scenery is to be met with.

For the last twenty miles of its course the river flows beneath cliffs of trap-rock from twenty to five hundred feet high at various points. These cliffs are named the Palisades, and are a very favourite resort for the people of New York, who come out for some miles from the city by one of the numerous steamers and climb the cliffs for the sake of the beautiful view to be obtained of the river and surrounding country from the top. The contrast of colours on these in bright weather is very fine: in some places they are covered with trees and grass from the water's edge to their summits; in others, where the rock rises too abruptly for vegetation, the bare precipice stands out brown and rugged against the sky.

The Hudson has frequently been compared with the Rhine, to which its lofty banks give it a strong resemblance, though of course they are entirely destitute of the ruins which form so prominent a feature of the European river. Along its course are the scenes of most of the legends made famous by Washington Irving, and about one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth rise the Catskill moun-

tains where Rip Van Winkle slept his sleep of twenty years.

On the banks near New York are numerous country seats belonging to wealthy merchants and other inhabitants of the city, where they reside with their families during the excessive heat of the summer. These peep out from amongst the trees and give to the sides of the river something of the appearance of the wooded hills that rise from the Lake of Como, whose sides are studded with similar villas, though the former want the extreme brilliancy of colouring which is so charming a characteristic of the latter.

The river is navigable for 150 miles from its mouth, and opens out here and there into lakes five or six miles wide, like the Tappan Zee, nearly forty miles from its mouth, where the river attains its greatest breadth and then contracts again.

In an American landscape there would be a strong resemblance to English scenery, were it not for the nearly total absence of hedges. The snake-fence here takes the place of the briar and the thorn—objects which are as ornamental in a landscape as they are useful on a farm. The American coast, too, is low, monotonous, and tame, compared with that which borders our own country. But the feature peculiar to the New World, to which nothing in Europe possesses any resemblance, is

the glorious autumn tints of the woods—brilliant scarlets, rich browns, and deep yellows. During the 'Indian summer, which follows the extremely hot weather of August and the beginning of September, the colours of the forests are most splendid; and if only to see the woods in their autumn glory it would be well worth while to undertake a voyage across the Atlantic. Though the features of an American landscape (e. g. rivers, valleys, and waterfalls) are of such vast proportions that a person accustomed only to European scenery requires some education fully to appreciate them.

The most beautiful scenery on the river is at West Point, about fifty miles from its mouth, where the United States' Military Academy is situated. Here the hills on the banks rise to a height of 600 feet above the river; and this portion is especially like parts of the Rhine, though we believe the advantage in point of natural beauty to be on the side of the Hudson. This spot also derives some interest from having been the key of the river during the Revolution. The church of the Holy Innocents is most beautifully placed a mile from here in the heart of the highlands.

Along this river lie the scenes of Arnold's treason and André's misfortunes, as well as those of many important incidents in the war of the Revolution; and 150 miles from its mouth is Albany, the farthest point to which the magnificent

steamers that have been so happily compared to "the grand hotel moving along to the sound of Jullien's band" can go, though their draught of water is only five feet. This place is the capital of the State of New York, has the State House, Capitol, a cathedral, and nearly 100,000 inhabitants. The streets are not very crowded, and are scarcely better paved than those of New York itself. The eastern terminus of the New York Central railway is here; and the scenery on this line to Utica, about ninety miles, is some of the finest in the State of New York. The Mohawk runs beside the railway through a valley formed by two lines of wooded hills from one to two miles apart, which on a bright day afford with the river a most beautiful view; and it would be a great loss for any one travelling in the country to miss seeing it by passing along this section of the line at night. Through the same valley and parallel with the railroad runs the Erie canal, the largest in America, and connecting the great lakes above Niagara. On the New York Central railroad, now runs a train called the "Lightning Express," which, in connexion with another on the Hudson River railroad, completes the distance between New York and Chicago (930 miles) in twenty-nine hours, giving an average of about thirty-two miles an hour, including stoppages.

The scenery beyond Utica becomes compara-

tively tame till—after having passed *en route* through the classical towns of Rome, Syracuse, Jordan, Lyons, Arcadia, and Palmyra—the train is within a few miles of Niagara. The first glimpse of the falls is gained from a distance of about two miles, soon after leaving the Suspension Bridge station, whence the line to the station of Niagara Falls diverges from that for Detroit, Chicago, &c. The usual feeling of a foreigner approaching Niagara for the first time is dread of disappointment: he fears that the falls will not equal in reality the descriptions of them he has so often heard and read. This apprehension, however, is dissipated as soon as the cataract is approached; then a feeling of awe and wonder, and a sense of his own insignificance, take the place of the former sentiment. Certainly no writer has ever adequately described (and no description can ever adequately illustrate the reality) the mass of waters tumbling for the greater part of a mile at one leap from an elevation of more than fifty yards. Some idea of the scene might be gained by imagining one end of the English Channel narrowed to the width of one mile and its waters rushing over an elevation of about the height of the cliffs at Folkestone. 1,500,000,000 cubic feet of water are said every hour to pass over the ledge of the falls, which form the outlet of that grand chain of inland seas extending for a distance of 1400 miles. Lake

Superior, the most remote, is 30,000 square miles in area; Lake Michigan, 22,600; Lake Huron, 21,000; Lake Clair, 700; and Lake Erie, 6000; making together 80,300 square miles. This is the basin that forms the vast reservoir from which that enormous body of water is taken every hour without its contents suffering any appreciable diminution.

The falls are in two sections, divided from each other by a large island, called Goat Island, about a mile and a half round; at the end of which farthest from the falls are a group of smaller islands, named the "Sisters," connected by short bridges, from which fine views of the upper rapids can be obtained. On either side of this island the river hurries along with tremendous violence, its surface broken by the rocks that stand in its bed, which slopes from the lake (Erie) to the ledge of the falls on a gradient of about one in seventy-seven. The fall on the American side of the river (called the American Fall) is the smaller of the two, though even this is a furlong across, and of rather greater height than its gigantic neighbour. About ten yards of this again are separated from the main body by Luna Island, a little island having an area of about three quarters of an acre, deriving its name, we are told, "from the effective rainbow forms seen at this point"—on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle, we suppose. Under this smaller portion of the falls is what is called the Cave of the Winds.

The cave is formed by the descending water and the cliff. The water shoots out a little by its own velocity, and the ledge of rock also juts out about 100 feet above the spot where the giddy traveller is groping his anxious way along a slippery plank, in an atmosphere containing at least seventy-five per cent. of moisture. He has had previously to encase himself in semi-waterproof garments, and, discarding the ordinary leather shoes of civilized society, to cover his feet with list that he may not lose the precarious footing afforded by the planks forming the way through the cave; during the time he is on them he must gain a more or less accurate idea of the feelings of a sinner on Mahomet's bridge, Al Sirat, when not quite certain whether his accounts in this world showed a balance in favour of the Prophet or not. The apparatus necessary for a visit to this place, as well as a guide, are to be obtained on payment of the usual fee (one dollar) on Goat Island. We should recommend no stranger to attempt the passage without a guide, nor in any case if not sure of his head.

After emerging from the cave on to the rocks at the foot of the larger fall most beautiful rainbows are seen in the spray on bright days, though we think that the beauty of the view from this point hardly exceeds that to be obtained from the edge of the small fall where it leaves the

ledge. Ladies even are said sometimes to pass through the cave, but probably they belong to the class of which Dr. Mary Walker may be taken as the type. On the Canadian side, too, persons can penetrate on a narrow ledge for a short distance beneath the Horse-shoe Fall, and experience the pleasure of getting thoroughly wet through, in spite of the dress they are advised to put on. On British soil a dollar has to be paid in coin for this dress and a negro guide—who generally takes the precaution of remaining at the entrance, while the gasping adventurer proceeds along the precarious ledge alone: Sambo not generally caring to risk his health by subjecting his precious person too frequently to a shower-bath. Of the two passages under the falls the former is certainly the most satisfactory, the latter has frequently been stigmatized as the worst dollar's worth in America.

On the side of Goat Island next the Canadian shore is the Horse-shoe Fall, so named from its shape. The vast volume of water constantly pouring over this precipice appears to have eaten away the ledge here, and the centre of the fall is much behind either of the extremities. Over this receding portion the great bulk of the water sweeps in one grand unbroken mass, suggestive of a huge green wheel everlastingly revolving, or a vast wave breaking on the shore. There are *said* to be

twenty feet of water above the ledge at this point: it is certain that a ship drawing eighteen feet of water passed over the ledge here without touching the rock.

A few feet from the American side of the Canadian Falls stands a tower, seeming to totter on the brink of the precipice from the edge of which it rises: it has a circular outside gallery commanding a splendid bird's-eye view of the whole of the falls. The velocity with which the water rushes down from the lake to the falls is shown by the strong wind that is felt by a person standing on this gallery to be blowing along the river, though elsewhere the air may be perfectly still.

The principal hotel on the American side of the falls is the Cataract House, on the Canadian side the Clifton House. The former appears to be the rendezvous of all the newly-married couples of New England. On one Sunday in September there were from forty to fifty of these couples in the house at once. Niagara was said by a Yankee to be the "most *bridy* place he knew." Certainly it is unpleasant for a visitor to be a constant and unwilling spectator of huggings in the passages and kisses on the stairs. In consequence of the Americans being a demonstrative people they are less particular as to the publicity of the situations they choose for exchanging these tokens of affection than the English, but it would be very unfair

to judge all the nation by the few individuals one meets at such places.

The Cataract House opposite Goat Island by the side of the rapids, about 150 yards above the falls, is the one most frequented. A list of arrivals appears every day on the back of the bill of fare for dinner; and the curious misspelling of the names of the representatives of all nations that meet in this establishment is frequently productive of great mirth to all but the unfortunate subjects thereof. There is a great and uncommon luxury in the lower regions of this hotel: a couple of strong-current baths; that is to say, a small stream is diverted from the troubled rapids that boil past the house at lightning-speed towards the falls and is led through a hole in the wall into two baths that resemble large troughs about twelve feet long, five feet broad, and two and a half feet deep, in which the bather disports himself, approaching as near as possible to the aperture about a yard from the ground, through which the torrent hurls itself with a velocity that carries it three or four feet before it falls to the bottom of the bath, afterwards disappearing more mildly through a grating at the other end. Immersion in this for a few minutes in hot weather is exceedingly grateful and refreshing.

The other hotel much frequented by visitors to Niagara is the Clifton House on the Canadian side. It is smaller and not so comfortable as

the American House, but has the advantage of commanding a splendid view of the Horse-shoe Fall, which is not visible at all from the other hotel. Visitors to this hotel, as well as purchasers at the neighbouring shops, have to make all their payments in specie, though the sellers are only too delighted if the former have nothing but green-backs, as it affords them an opportunity of adding from ten to twenty-five per cent. to their ordinary charges, while they have only to cross the suspension bridge to the American side of the river to obtain the full market value for the paper money.

There is a ferry to the Canadian shore starting from the foot of the American falls. The bank of the river is reached through a slanting shaft, at the bottom of which is laid a tramway at a gradient of about one in two. On this runs a small car, which is rapidly lowered by a rope and windlass. The passenger as he descends can see nothing but the river boiling along at the mouth of the tunnel, and, if so disposed, can occupy the time pleasantly in speculating how long it would be before the car and its occupants would reach the whirlpool three miles below the falls were the rope to break. An apparatus of the same kind is used for entering Botallack mine in Cornwall near the Land's End. Though the voyage to the other side is damp from the spray, yet the beautiful view of the falls from the surface of the river amply compensates for

any temporary inconvenience. Indeed a true idea of the immensity of the falls can scarcely be acquired by any other means, now that the small steamer "Maid of the Mist" no longer carries enthusiastic travellers to the very foot of them. The captain of this little craft rescued his vessel from the hands of the bailiffs by taking her down the rapids into Canadian waters, but it was at the cost of his life. A short distance above the whirlpool she is said to have accomplished at the rate of more than seventy miles an hour.

The grandeur of the falls themselves quite seems to eclipse the other beautiful and wild scenery of the river Niagara, which is not quite thirty-four miles in length altogether. Below the falls, however, the river rushes along through richly-wooded banks, while far away in the distance lie the blue waters of Ontario. The beauty of the views to be obtained in various spots between the falls and the lake seems to be almost ignored by those who have described Niagara, though did not the former exist, a month's sojourn at the village would well compensate an artist for his journey thither.

The rapids commence about a mile below the falls. The Americans are in nowise behind the Swiss in appreciating the advantage of being able to discount the natural beauties of their country, and those who wish to have a near view of the rapids can do so on payment of fifty cents, for

which they will be allowed to use the elevator kept here for the purpose, and which will take them down the 200 feet that lie between the top of the cliff and the river. The velocity of the current here is so great that in the centre the water forms a ridge fifteen to eighteen feet higher than its level at the banks. Two miles farther on is the whirlpool; the best view of which is gained from the Canadian side by another payment of fifty cents. This is a natural basin in the cliffs into which the river rushes with immense velocity: the outlet is at right angles to the entrance, the current having to change its direction before it can escape from the basin. The force of the water in the centre is so great that baulks of timber are frequently set up on end and kept in that position for some time by the current.

Between the rapids and the whirlpool lies the lower of the two suspension bridges, which is a double one; the upper road carrying the railway, the lower one being for foot-passengers and carriages. Close by this was the rope by means of which a velocipedist crossed the river on his bicycle twice during the summer of 1869—a feat really far easier than that of Blondin, who walked over a rope similarly placed, though it would seem to the uninitiated to be more dangerous.

Eight miles from Niagara Falls is the village of Tuscarora, inhabited to a great extent by Indians

who have settled down as tillers of the soil and assumed the garments of the pale-faces. They have a church, where the service is conducted partly in Indian, partly in English. The congregation is formed of the said Indians and the American farmers living near, whose habit it is on Sunday morning to lock up their houses and go with all their household to church—a primitive state of manners which we are glad to say is not productive of any loss to those who adopt it; the case would be different, we fear, in the old country. The service on the day we were there was conducted by the Indian chief, who seemed to change from one language to the other with the greatest ease, half his sermon being in Indian, half in English; consequently the discourse was not particularly edifying to the Saxon portion of his audience. In reading the lesson for the day (in Indian), containing the account of the translation of Elijah, he interpolated a remark of his own in English, "That *was* a chariot, such as was never seen on this earth!" The singing was very good, the voices and language of the Indians being very musical; the latter is polysyllabic, and consists principally of the vowel *a* in combination with one consonant to each syllable.

There is a beautiful view from the platform where the church stands of undulating wooded country, through which the Niagara winds down to the lake

that stretches out on the horizon. On the road to Tuscarora are the Devil's Hole and Bloody Run; the former is a deep chasm, the latter a small stream whose course at this point a century ago was the scene of an Indian massacre. This part of the country must be a favourite "location" of his Satanic Majesty, if we may judge from the large number of places named after him.

About a mile above the falls, on the Canadian side of the river opposite the end of Goat Island, is a small hole in the rock about forty inches deep, called *Burning Spring*. At the bottom of it is some water through which large bubbles of sulphuretted hydrogen are constantly rising, which take fire on the application of a light. It is said to have been discovered towards the close of the last century by some Indians who camped by it, and were terrified by seeing the air in a blaze immediately they attempted to light a fire. They fled in dismay; and having mentioned the circumstance to a friendly trapper, he proceeded to the spot and discovered the source of the inflammable gas. There is now a small hut built over the spring, and a charge is made to those who are curious enough to investigate the spring, which is quite worth a visit. Close by is Lundy Lane, where occurred a skirmish between the English and Americans in 1812. On the field lives a veteran who is most happy to "fight his battles o'er again"

with any visitor from England, though fortunaetly, although upwards of seventy years of age, he has no need to shoulder his crutch, but has all the appearance of a man twenty years his junior.

CHAPTER VI.

EDUCATION IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES.

EVERY traveller in the United States is struck with the general intelligence of the people. This intelligence is not peculiar to any one privileged class as in England. The poor as well as the rich have the advantages given them of obtaining a first-rate and nevertheless cheap education for their children. On the steamboats, on the railroad and street-cars every stranger is impressed with the ready manner, the quick intelligence, the easy and natural politeness of the people. He cannot discover any marks of distinction between the working classes and those whom we suppose to be above them, nor is there any class sunk so deep in ignorance as our own agricultural labourers. Yet M. Rénan believes that the general education which is guaranteed to every one in the United States is productive of

mischief, inasmuch as it does not tend to produce high culture, but only intellectual mediocrity. He says, "Les pays qui, comme les États-Unis, ont créé un enseignement populaire considérable sans instruction supérieure sérieuse, expieront longtemps encore leur faute par leur médiocrité intellectuelle, leur grossièreté de mœurs, leur esprit superficiel, leur manque d'intelligence générale." It cannot be doubted, however, we think, that the foundation, the source of the wonderful spread of popular knowledge and universally quickened intellect of the United States, is to be sought for in that system of education which has taken root in the soil of the New World. It will not therefore be out of place for us to describe what we saw and heard of the facilities for acquiring knowledge in the colleges, institutes, and schools of the country.

We will speak then first of the common schools. Great pains have been taken, and noble provisions made, for diffusing the means of knowledge and for rendering ordinary instruction accessible to all.

The public-school system of the United States is the foundation of their political edifice, and is the real cause, as well of the general intelligence, as of the industry and commercial prosperity of its people, and of its political safety as a nation. This system is based on the principle set forward by Washington, that the "virtue and intelligence" of

the people are the indispensable securities of Republican institutions.

A nation having once arrived at universal suffrage can only check the evils likely to arise from the use of the ballot by educating its people up to the point at which they shall be competent to judge for themselves, and to bear the responsibilities of government. This is one of the problems which is now engaging the attention of thinkers and statesmen in the States. It is true that the Americans have as good, probably a better system of education than any other country in the world; but the accession of several millions of negroes, and the ever-flowing stream of Irish immigration seem to break through all reasonable provisions for the universal diffusion of knowledge.

New England, from the earliest settlement of the colony, took care that none of her citizens should grow up uneducated, unless by his own fault. In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts voted a supply for the foundation of a college, and in 1638 Harvard, "a godly gentleman and a lover of learning," bequeathed his estate of 850*l.* and half his library to the college. The college was soon followed by a grammar-school. "In 1647 in Massachusetts each town consisting of fifteen householders was directed to maintain a school to teach their children to read and write, and every town of a hundred families to maintain a grammar-school to

fit youth for college." And ever since these early days it has been part of the land system of the United States to provide for public schools by setting aside an appropriation of land for the school funds of the various States, in this way uniting together the social and territorial development of the people.

The American system of education in the public schools is based on the idea of citizenship. Religious teaching is not prohibited, but no dogmatic religion is taught any where. A portion of the Bible in the English version is read daily; but in a country broken up into so many creeds and sects, all of which are equal before the law, any denominational system would be absolutely impracticable. The Roman Catholics are the only sect who object to the present system, but they stand, so to speak, with their hands on the brakes, endeavouring to oppose progress, as they have ever done.

The education afforded is "secular," i. e. it teaches such subjects and in such a manner as best fits children for the duties of life in the world. Except in Massachusetts, the system is not compulsory, but there are nevertheless truant laws enacted, though not often carried out. A number of men known as truant officers are supposed to be constantly on the watch to apprehend delinquents.

It is supposed by the laws of the State of Massa-

chusetts that all children continue at school at least until they are fifteen years old, therefore those parents who do not send their children to the school regularly until they are this age, are fined twenty dollars for the first offence, if it arise by their own fault; but if the children prove incorrigible, they are taken before a magistrate and sent to a reformatory for a term not exceeding one year. But in spite of these precautionary measures it is found that a large number of children absent themselves from the State schools. In those States in which the educational system is not compulsory even in name, the rate of attendance is less, especially in the large cities. In Chicago, for instance, the percentage of non-attendance is about sixty, in Cincinnati seventy, and in New York forty. There seems, then, to be a large amount of absenteeism and truancy. In New York, where the population is crowded and particularly destitute, this evil is very excessive and on the increase. The law not only enforces attendance, but even fines, as we have said, the parents in some instances.

In the State of Connecticut the officers have by law the power "to take the children from their parents, or those who have the charge of them, and bind them out to some proper master—if males until they are twenty-one years of age, if females until they are eighteen—that they be properly

educated and brought up in a lawful calling or employment." But this law, we believe, has never been strictly enforced. In Rhode Island the penalties are "on the parents a fine of ten dollars, on the children not more than a year's imprisonment." There seems to be, however, a strong feeling growing gradually among the intellectual classes in favour of some means being taken, sooner or later, to obtain a uniform compulsory system throughout the entire country. Hitherto public opinion in the United States has been opposed to compulsion.

In Massachusetts the school age is between five and fifteen, although the education does not necessarily cease before twenty-one years.

The schools are supported in the first place by a *State fund*, which is distributed among the townships, on condition that each raises, by local taxation, a sum of about four shillings for each child between the ages of five and fifteen. Some are inclined to think that this State fund works badly, as its effect is to crush local energy, and that the people take less interest in schools thus supported than in those which are entirely dependent for their maintenance on local energy; on the other hand, the moral support of the State (even although the amount granted by the legislature be infinitesimal) is a powerful agent in encouraging the formation as well as the growth of

schools, and by means of the annual returns the progress and proceedings of the various schools are made known and easily compared.

The local taxation of the Eastern States is much higher than that of the Western, for the whole theory of educational facilities is now so systematized that grants of land are set aside expressly for this purpose when a new state is formed, and in the larger cities of the West a considerable portion of the fund arises from local endowments. In 1868 the State fund of Boston amounted only to 11,545 dollars, and the balance of the total expenditure (which amounted in the same year to 961,497 dollars) was raised by local taxation. In the same year the rateable property of the city of Boston was valued at about 493,500,000 dollars.

The schools are supported in the second place by *local taxation.* Fees are never paid in the State of Massachusetts. There is even an annual fund set apart for the free supply of books to all the pupils. For it is provided by the statutes of the commonwealth of Massachusetts, that "If any scholar is not furnished by his parent, master, or guardian, with the requisite books, he shall be supplied therewith by the school committee at the expense of the town. The committee shall give notice in writing to the assessors of the town of the names of the scholars so supplied with books. . . . If the assessors are of opinion that any parent,

master, or guardian is unable to pay the whole expense of the books so supplied on his account, they shall omit to add the price of such books, or shall add only a part thereof, to his annual tax, according to their opinion of his ability to pay." The books furnished to indigent children are stamped with the words, "The property of the city of Boston." When a child who has these city books leaves school, he leaves his books behind. The sum expended on this head for the year 1868—1869 was 16,500 dollars. In Philadelphia, where *all* the children are provided with books gratuitously, it was found, a few years since, that the cost was about one dollar a year for each pupil. The chief objection to furnishing books gratuitously to only a certain number of boys, is its demoralizing effect upon both pupils and parents. It seems to us that it would be better to furnish *all*, and make the schools of Massachusetts entirely *free* in reality, as they are in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other cities.

In Massachusetts each township is bound, under penalties, to raise money for the maintenance of its schools, but the standard of excellence varies in different townships.

The State usually sets the machinery of a school in motion, and having done so leaves it to the township. There is no centralization in the management. In New York the disturbing influence of

politics is felt, but in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts such influence is unknown, or at all events unheeded, in the administration of the educational system.

A constant supervision is exercised over the schools by the trustees, the inspectors, the superintendent (in certain States), and the school committees appointed by the townships.

There are also sub-committees, whose visitations take place once a month, while the examinations in the primary and grammar-schools are held quarterly. But, in spite of this extended supervision, the inspection seems on the whole to be very imperfect. In New York we find men of business devoting their time to attending meetings of the school committees regularly, and taking the office of trustee without remuneration.

The teachers, on whose efforts so much depends, are both male and female. The female teachers predominate largely. In July, 1868, there were 732 regular teachers in the Boston schools, of whom sixty-nine only were men. For teaching the accomplishments of modern languages, music, and drawing, there were at the same time twelve men and only one woman.

The efficiency of the female teachers is probably superior to that of most men, and they are obtained at less cost, about 100*l.* a year. In Boston there are no female principals, not even in the girls'

high and normal school. The American women exhibit a peculiar fitness for teaching. They are very versatile, and having themselves gone through these schools they know well what is required. The most striking feature of the schools is the admirable discipline which is maintained, mechanical though it be, and possibly injurious in its effects on the young pupils of the primary schools. We were particularly struck with the great order and excellent discipline in those schools which had female teachers. It is obvious that where so many teachers belong to "the weaker sex" corporal punishment is impracticable (apart from the fact that American parents are very sensitive on this point), consequently the only punishment which remains for extreme offences is expulsion.

The schools are divided into primary, grammar, and high schools. In classifying the pupils of cities it is found convenient to divide all that belong to the primary and grammar-schools into ten grades—four grammar and six primary—for pupils from different schools frequently meet, therefore it becomes necessary to have a uniform standard, and certain well-defined breaks at intervals, so that the pupils from different *grades* may all advance *pari passu*. By this system of grades, all the teachers are required to give instruction in the same subjects, and if any fail in doing their duty, it becomes more difficult for those of the upper

classes to compensate for the deficiency and keep up to the required standard. One, and by no means the least advantage of this system, is that it necessarily makes each teacher, in a certain sense, the inspector and judge of the work of the teacher in the next lower grade, while his own work is in turn subject to the criticism of his immediate superior. By this system all the students ought to be advanced at one and the same time. It was evidently adopted to save labour as much as possible, and illustrates that feature of Americanism which delights in doing every thing in a wholesale way. The evil of this system is that all individual independence of thought must disappear in that of the mass, and all individualism of character is discouraged. Each teacher has a class under his sole supervision and management for a certain time, and gives instruction in all the studies required by the class.

The ordinary course is supposed to be completed in thirteen years—between the ages of five and eighteen—of which four are usually spent in the primary schools, four or five in the grammar-schools, and four or five in the high schools. There are in the city of Boston (which has a population of about 221,000 people, of whom 43,100 are children between the ages of five and fifteen) 336 schools, of which number four are high schools, twenty-seven grammar-schools, and the

remainder are primary schools. By the statutes of Massachusetts, it is provided that "each primary school shall contain, as nearly as possible, fifty-six pupils, which shall be the standard number," and the same provision is made in reference to the grammar-schools of Boston.

The course of instruction in the primary schools is what is commonly known in England as "the three R's," besides spelling. The reading lessons are principally taken from prose authors, and the children first read the passage aloud, then explain each word, and lastly give the meaning of the whole passage, and thus avoid the danger of reading by rote only. To this careful attention which is paid to reading we must attribute the excellence to which nearly all the people of the United States have attained in this respect. The system which has recently been adopted throughout the United States for teaching reading is that commonly known as "Leigh's phonic system." The children are taught arithmetic by means of a square frame, with beads sliding on wires. The slate is used for drawing and writing. On its frame are pasted strips of coloured paper, on which are printed alphabets, numerals, punctuation, and geometrical figures. These figures are of various degrees of difficulty, in proportion to the advancement of the class by which they are used. In the higher classes mathematical figures are delineated on the slates. Writing is

taught by the mistress, who draws on one of the black boards (which are attached to either side-wall, and also to the wall above the teacher's platform) a letter, a numeral, or a figure out of proportion; she then explains its defects, and afterwards calls on the pupils to imitate the copy which they find on their slate-edge. Spelling is taught entirely by sound. Observation is encouraged and developed by noting the properties and qualities of objects, considering their uses, and the country whence they are derived. Even singing and the musical notes are taught by the black board. The frequent use of the black board is very popular, not only in the public schools, but also in the colleges of the United States. In the lecture-rooms of Harvard these boards are used by the students for working out problems which have been set during the lecture. By this means not only is rapidity acquired in working, but also all faults and mistakes are held up to the criticism of the whole class.

In the primary schools there is no distinction made between the sexes, the boys and girls sitting side by side irrespective of race and condition in life. The negro boy sits by the side of the white man's child, the poor boy by his wealthier neighbour's son, and the teachers are careful to show no preferences.

To these schools we find that the wealthy

people hesitate not to send their children; but in the schools of the higher grades there is a gradual falling off in the attendance of children who are born in prosperous circumstances. It is difficult to explain the reasons for this tendency, unless it be that when young the children are less likely to be contaminated by contact with the poor, or that a gradual but certain development of aristocratic feeling among the wealthy class is taking place, or that a better (as it undoubtedly is a higher) education can be obtained at the private schools, of which there are many in the large cities. In the private schools for girls rhetoric and the *belles lettres* are dwelt on very much, but foreign languages and music are seldom taught with any great success. Most young ladies of wealth however "finish" their education in Europe. The promotions from the primary to the grammar-schools take place twice annually, but competitive examinations are not as yet in vogue. A certificate of admission to the grammar-school is given by the master to those who are thought to have reached the necessary standard.

Every grammar-school is divided into four classes, and each class into two divisions, each of which pursues the studies of the class to which it belongs. The work in the various classes consists of lessons in reading, spelling, writing, drawing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and history, together

with a small amount of natural philosophy and physiology. Besides this, two and a half hours every week are devoted to the study of vocal music, and to exercises in simple notation.

The historical and geographical questions are absurdly trivial, and the knowledge acquired is so minute in detail as to preclude the possibility of any system in its attainment. The histories used are unfairly one-sided in their views—English injustice, English tyranny are in every page held up to reprobation. The English are described as being constantly defeated in every battle of the wars of the revolution and 1812, and to this partial and unfair view of past events is due in a great degree the bitter feeling towards England which pervades nearly all classes of people in the United States. In fact, all the text-books are very inferior, whether we refer to those in use in the schools or in the universities. The classical text-books are especially poor. And to this fact the dearth of scholarship is in a great measure due. Indeed the study of classical languages is seldom pursued to any great depth, probably because the people esteem it of little *practical* advantage.

The vivacity with which questions are answered is astonishing, for quickness is supposed (falsely, we think, in such a case) to be a proof of intelligence and knowledge. The general discipline is excellent. It is most interesting to see the methodical and

machine-like movements of the small children, especially in the primary schools. If the teacher asks a question which is unanswered by the child to whom it is directed, three or four tiny white hands are raised in a moment above their desks by other little children, with intelligent, eager faces, who are anxious to show that they at least know how to answer correctly.

From the schools of the second grade, i. e. the grammar-schools, the pupils (after passing one of the semi-annual examinations) proceed upwards to those of the highest grade, viz. the English and Latin high schools for boys, and the high and normal school for girls. Up to this stage of their education the sexes appear to be mixed indiscriminately, now, at the age of thirteen, they diverge, and continue on their new course from four to six years. These high schools are preparatory only—the English for those who are about to enter on a practical and commercial life, the Latin for those who are intending to proceed to college, and the girls' high and normal school for those who intend to become teachers. The high schools of New York and Philadelphia endeavour to make the instruction they afford final, by conferring degrees on deserving pupils.

The course of instruction in the English high schools of Boston embraces geography, history, algebra, drawing, elementary mathematics, men-

suration, astronomy, a certain amount of theology, French, and monthly declamations, at which the parents and friends are invited to attend. The object of the Latin high school is "to teach the rudiments of Greek and Latin, and fit scholars for respectable colleges."

In the grammar-schools of Boston the hours of instruction are usually from nine till twelve, and from two till five (with intervals for recreation), and from nine till two p.m. on Saturdays. In the high schools the hours are only from nine till two p.m., and only thirty-five pupils are assigned to each master. There is a most excellent collection of philosophical and scientific apparatus, and the high school of Philadelphia has even an observatory for teaching practical astronomy.

The subjects of instruction in the girls' high and normal school are much the same as those in the Latin high school, with the addition of vocal music, and also careful training in the theory and practice of teaching. In fact, many of the teachers in the primary schools are pupils of this school, and others proceed to the school of technology, and obtain instruction in chemistry and science.

In all these schools dogmatic teaching is carefully avoided. They are all, without exception, undenominational. The Roman Catholics only objecting to the public schools, send their children to schools of their own. In England, where

hitherto the teaching of the schools has been denominational, complaints are raised that the working classes, after passing through them, too often abandon all attendance at a place of worship. In America, the exclusion of dogma is accompanied with great religious zeal, while churches are springing up in all directions, and flourishing missions sent to foreign countries.

The cost of educating each child in Boston is 2*l.* 10*s.* a year in the lower grades, and about double this sum in the higher grades, and in rural districts even less. In England it is supposed that the cost of educating each child under the proposed compulsory system will be about 1*l.* 10*s.*, or at the most 1*l.* 15*s.*, a head.

The American system is necessary under the conditions of the country. Every man is a citizen entitled to vote, and every citizen may become President. This accounts for the extensive knowledge of the history and constitution of the United States, and the frequent appeals to patriotism which are made in the schools of America. The result is not altogether satisfactory, good as is the system, of public education in the United States. The knowledge acquired is superficial, is broad, but shallow. Too many subjects are taken up, and too soon are dropped out of the curriculum to make room for others. But whatever the defects of the American system of

education, it has produced the most generally educated and intelligent race of people in the world.

Thus far, the cost of education has been defrayed by the State, but many desire to gain a deeper knowledge and to continue their studies for a longer time than they are able to do in the public schools. Boston is especially fortunate in possessing an excellent institute of technology, of which the object is to provide "a four years' course of scientific and literary studies and practical exercises, embracing pure and applied mathematics, the physical and natural sciences with their applications, drawing, the English language, mental and political science, French and German." The aim of the institute is to offer a liberal and practical education in preparation for the active pursuits of life. For the first two years all the students pursue the same course; in the third year they diverge and select that course of study which will be of most use to them in their chosen profession. This selection is made from the following courses :—

1. A Course of Mechanical Engineering.
2. „ Civil Engineering.
3. „ Chemistry.
4. „ Geology.
5. „ Building and Architecture.
6. „ Science and Literature.

The last of these courses has not a distinctly pro-

fessional character, but aims at giving the student a suitable preparation for any of the departments of active life.

An examination is required on entering this institute, for which the training in the high schools is usually a sufficient preparation. A student may enter the class of any year, provided he is able to pass an examination in those studies of the years preceding that for which he intends to enter. Instruction is given by lectures and recitations, and by practical exercises in the field, and the student's progress is tested by examinations. The use of text-books is avoided as much as possible. The institute has a very good collection of apparatus.

The system of drawing on the black board and with crayons, is that in use in the Belgian and French normal schools. This method, which with us is principally applied to ornamentation, is extended here to working-drawings of machinery and engineering works. There is a most excellent collection of models for the use of students in the architectural department. Most of these have been presented to this museum by private individuals and by the enterprise of the professor of the department. The aim of the architectural department is to give the latest and newest designs and the shortest method of working plans; and, besides this, all the students who are desirous of

a degree in architecture have to present a series of original drawings, to enable them to acquire practical skill in design.

The students of this institute have the full use of the Boston public library, which now contains about 150,000 volumes, besides all the best periodical literature. Frequent excursions are made by the students, accompanied by a professor, to see mines, engineering works, processes of manufacture, &c. We ourselves once joined an expedition of this kind organized by the professor of chemistry, to inspect some petroleum distillery works in the city, the professor stopping at intervals to explain the various processes.

The hours of attendance are long and continuous, from nine in the morning until five in the evening, and the discipline is strict and well maintained. Besides the regular instruction by day, there are evening courses of lectures, open to persons of either sex who "resort to the lecture-rooms for such useful knowledge as they can acquire without methodical study, and in hours not occupied by business." The fees are, for the first year's course, about 21*l.*, for the second, third, and fourth, 24*l.* Some students are required to give a bond for 30*l.* to pay all charges due to the school. We cannot but think that the State stops short in its appropriation of funds for educational purposes when it makes no grant to this institute;

for this school of technology provides a cheap education enabling students to bring to their profession the increased proficiency due to enlarged views, and plenty of practical observation.

In Boston there is also a museum of natural history, at which evening lectures on scientific subjects are delivered.

The Lowell Institute also endeavours to provide for the intellectual wants of the people of Boston by its courses of lectures delivered by well-known lecturers during the winter months. Other cities besides Boston are provided with institutes and museums and courses of lectures, but Boston is, *par excellence*, the Athens of the United States, and as such received much of our time. Philadelphia has a university and the best natural history museum in America—even its penitentiary has an excellent library for the use of the prisoners. The Cooper Institute of New York supplies a technical education to the artisan class, and has about 1500 members, drawn principally from the labouring class. Even the "young" State of California is not behind those in the East in its system of education, but rather, in one particular at least, is in advance of them. San Francisco is made up of people of almost every nation under the sun; the advantage, therefore, of teaching them each other's language is obvious. With this view primary schools have been established in some of which French and English,

in others French and German, are taught. These culminate in the "cosmopolitan" school, in which the subjects of the grammar and high schools of the Eastern cities are taught in different languages. Thus the American learns other languages than his own. The French and German children preserve their own languages and acquire English. But besides the public schools and the institutes, there are commercial colleges in the different cities, all of them being under the same management and organization. The pupils of one of these schools communicate in a business-like way with those of another, and represent firms corresponding from different parts of the world. The utility of such an education as is afforded in these colleges cannot be over-estimated in a community of which so many members follow commercial pursuits.

The libraries, with which even the smallest towns are provided, are also the means of disseminating much general information, and contribute in a great measure to the general intelligence of the people.

"The first public library in America was given to the University of Virginia by the Virginian Company of London, but it was soon after destroyed by fire. Harvard University also had its library burnt in 1764. At present the ten principal libraries in the United States are:—1. the Library of Congress at Washington, 183,000 volumes; 2. Boston

Public Library, 150,000; 3. Astor Library of New York, 138,000; 4. Harvard College Library, 118,000; 5. Mercantile Library, New York, 104,500; 6. Athenæum Library, Boston, 100,000; 7. Philadelphia Library Company, Philadelphia, 85,000; 8. New York State Library, Albany, 76,000; 9. New York Society Library, New York, 57,000; 10. Yale College Library, 50,000. Dr. Benjamin Rush has recently bequeathed a million dollars for a new public library in Philadelphia, but the conditions of its location are vexatious. In many of the States the law authorizes taxes to be raised for founding and supporting public libraries." We cannot wonder, then, that the people of the United States are so universally intelligent, but our wonder, nay, our admiration ought to be excited ten-fold, when we remember that all these facilities for education have been brought to such perfection in so few years.

CHAPTER VII.

EDUCATION IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

THE common schools were originally intended by their founders as a means of beginning an education which was to be continued and completed at some college.

The words "college" and "university" are used indiscriminately in speaking of these institutions, but Harvard is the only one which is perhaps really entitled to the more comprehensive of the two names. Recently an officer has been appointed whose duties will nearly correspond to those of the "head of a house" in an English university, while the President of the University of Harvard occupies a position somewhat similar to that of our Vice-Chancellor, superintending the financial as well as exercising a nominal supervision over the teaching department.

Of the colleges of the United States (most of which are denominational) Harvard and Yale are

the oldest and best, while Cornell is the newest, and as yet only experimental in its results. Some of the central States also have colleges which, like their schools, are undenominational, but these are exceptions. Their influence is as insignificant as their sphere is narrow. It would seem that the Americans, who are eager in their generation to benefit posterity and at the same time to leave an "undying fame" behind them, think that they will best achieve their object by founding, out of their individual resources, colleges which shall bear their own names. In this way no less than 240 colleges have sprung into existence, of which nine-tenths at least are denominational. Rivalry is a natural consequence, with its obvious and attendant evils, for instead of endowing existing institutions and making them universities not only in name but also in reality, whose sphere of usefulness would be increased with their increased resources, these petty colleges with their cramped means can afford only an inferior education and exercise a correspondingly small influence on the intellectual life and tone of thought of the country.

The natural situation of both Universities of Harvard and Yale is quite classical, the former in the suburbs of Boston, the latter in the heart of the lovely city of Newhaven, whose magnificent trees have given to it the appellation of the "Elm city." Both these colleges profess strict neutrality in re-

ligious matters (although, as a matter of fact, the majority of the governing body of the former are Unitarians, of the latter Congregationalists). Nor are they exclusive in their sphere of usefulness. Large sums are bestowed annually on indigent students out of what are known as the "beneficiary fund" and the "loan fund." The amount varies in the two universities—at Harvard the sum is about 4000 dollars annually, at Yale about 3000 dollars.

The "loan fund" is peculiar to Harvard. It is raised by subscription among the friends of the university, is vested in the President and fellows as trustees, and "the interest is *lent* to meritorious students desirous of receiving it in sums ranging from fifty to 150 dollars." The only conditions, besides that of insufficient means, required of the recipients of such assistance are good moral character and competent ability.

Besides these funds there is a very large number of scholarships tenable by undergraduates. At Harvard there are seventy of these, varying in value from seventy-five to 300 dollars annually, some of which were founded by "the class" of any particular year and the rest by private munificence. These are small, as compared with the scholarships in an English university, and there is also this further point of difference, viz. that at Harvard "the obtaining of a scholarship for one year will

not be held to constitute any title to a second nomination, unless the superiority for which it was originally awarded be fully maintained." In England, on the other hand, scholarships are tenable during, and even beyond, the time spent on the whole academical course.

Yale is by no means so well off as her sister university in respect of scholarships, for they are only five in number, and range from forty-six to 120 dollars annually in value.

In no case at either college are these scholarships awarded by examination, but the elections to them are made by the respective trustees. Besides these endowments there are also the monitorships, which correspond to bible clerkships at Oxford, and in some degree to sizarships at Cambridge.

Many students in indigent circumstances and of good character are allowed to "keep school" for a period not exceeding thirteen weeks in one year (including the winter vacation), and thus to procure the means for supporting themselves for the remainder of the terms. Some are even known to conduct horse-cars during the evenings, and thus earn every dollar they spend. Others are sent to colleges and maintained there by the munificence of unknown benefactors, so that, in fact, all sorts and conditions of men are able to give their sons the advantage of an university education.

Nor are the doors of the universities to be closed

any longer against women. Equality of the sexes is the custom of American homes. The corporation of Harvard does not receive women into the college proper, nor into any school whose discipline requires residence near the school; nor does it entertain the question of the fitness or unfitness of women to enter professions any more than it protects the community against incompetent lawyers and doctors, but it admits women to those studies which enlarge the intellect and prepare for the profession of teaching, the one learned profession to which, at any rate, women have already acquired a clear title. Nor is Yale far behind Harvard in this respect, for we understood that the governing body of Yale have determined to admit women to all the lectures, believing that their influence on men "emollit mores nec sinit esse feros."

The expenses of an undergraduate in the academical department, or college proper, at Harvard or Yale are estimated at about 450 dollars, say 70*l.* a year (exclusive of wearing apparel, pocket-money, travelling expenses, and board during the vacations), which corresponds very nearly with the amount of the "battels" at Oxford, although in England the academical year is not more than half as long as in America. We were informed that a man can live on 100*l.* a year, and that any one who exceeded 200*l.* would be thought extra-

vagant. But we must remember that not a few of the students share their room with a friend, light their own fires, and cook for themselves. Others, who wish to live still more economically, board in messes of ten or a dozen men.

The statutes of Harvard relating to lodging and boarding houses appear to be very stringent in their provisions, for no wine or spirituous liquor may be used, and no smoking is permitted at the table. But this does not prevent or check, nay, it may even tend to encourage, the use of stimulating drinks elsewhere, and many of the Harvard students are said to spend their evenings in Boston at the public bars. Discipline is very lax, although there are proctors to enforce the statutes of the universities. The buildings are not of quadrangular form, and therefore there is no common gateway, nor are the students required to be in their rooms at any specified hour of the night. Consequently stress is laid upon attendance at chapel and "recitations" (*viva voce* lectures)—that is to say, on those points of discipline which are less certainly indicative of the moral character. On the whole, however, the *morale* of the students at Harvard and Yale is as high, and the general tone of society as healthy, as at an English university. Attendance at the college chapel is compulsory both at Harvard and Yale on the week-days and also once on Sundays, unless special permission be

given by his parent or guardian to a student to attend Divine worship elsewhere. These stringent regulations are a curious feature in the system of education, for more freedom from compulsion in this matter is gradually being usurped by the undergraduates in our English universities, and compulsory attendance at the college chapel is in most cases relaxed, in many abandoned.

In order to check extravagance in those students who are more than 100 miles away from home, and consequently beyond the supervision of their parents, a "patron" is appointed by the University of Harvard, whose duty is to superintend their expenditure and to be during residence *in loco parentis* to them. At Yale this officer is known as the "guardian," and must be a member of the faculty, which is not necessary at Harvard. The parents remit to this officer the sums necessary for their son's education. No student is allowed to contract any debt without an order from his guardian, who charges two-and-a-half per cent. on all disbursements as a recompence for his trouble.

At Harvard the teaching and governing body is composed of seventy-eight professors, tutors, proctors, stewards, &c., and includes in its number many distinguished persons. The salaries are very small. The President receives about 700*l.* a year, or nearly the same as the professors; but the latter at American universities have to devote

nearly all their time to lecturing, and thus correspond with our college tutors. We were struck with this fact, and believe that the professors had far more lectures and recitations than they can, with justice to themselves and the students, satisfactorily undertake. The undergraduates are divided into four classes, according to their proficiency as shown at their matriculation examination, so that those who are able to reach the standard required for the fourth or senior class (provided they have all passed the examination for admission to the freshman's class) graduate after only one year's residence, while those who at matriculation enter the first or freshman's class are obliged to proceed by three yearly stages through the three others, provided they pass the annual examinations satisfactorily.

At Harvard the total number of undergraduates in the academical department is about 560; at Yale, about 520. The ordinary age of admission is between sixteen and eighteen; and at Yale, even after examination, they are for six months considered only probationary students. All the students before being admitted have to give a bond (corresponding to our caution money) for 200 dollars, as a guarantee that they will pay all the fees due to the university. A careful record is kept of the graduates of every year, who constitute what is called the "class" of that year, which nearly coincides

with the individual college at Oxford or Cambridge, inasmuch as its members for the most part, confine their acquaintance to those of the particular class to which they belong. When a class graduates, one of the members is appointed honorary secretary, whose duty it is to draw up a brief biography of the men of his year, and to add to it any details as occasion offers. When the class has died out, the biography of its members is deposited in the library of the university. It is usually arranged that the class shall muster as many of its members as possible once a year, and celebrate their *réunion* with a dinner; and there is something very touching in noting the vacant places which, as years roll on, death has created in their ranks.

The college course consists of *prescribed*, *elective*, and *extra* studies. All the studies of the freshman's class are *prescribed* or *compulsory*, i. e. no deviation is allowed from the subjects laid down, and no choice to the students in their reading. This is a very good arrangement, and is quite intelligible when we remember that seventeen is the average age at matriculation, and that the first two years of college life at Harvard or Yale correspond almost exactly (in the subjects read and the age of the students) with that of the highest forms of our public schools. It is not many years since all the students passed through one uniform curriculum; but this is altered now, not by any means because

the Americans love change for its own sake, but because they desire improvement. The great merit of the "non-elective system" is its simplicity. It still finds favour in most American colleges; but provided the early training of any youth has been sufficiently wide in its scope, it seems to us that the tendency to "individualize" the division of labour applied to mental activities ought to be encouraged as much as possible, not only for the benefit of the students but also of the teachers; for, by decreasing the number of the classes and by making the number of subjects larger, the professor's labours become more varied and agreeable.

At Harvard the freshman's year is the only one in which there is a fixed course prescribed for all. In the other three years more than half the time allotted to study is devoted to subjects chosen by each student from lists which comprise six studies in the sophomore year, nine in the junior, and eleven in the senior year. The choice offered to the student does not lie between liberal studies and professional or utilitarian studies.

The "elective" studies are all selected for each year, so that the range of choice is practically limited; but the defect of this system in the colleges, as in the common schools, seemed to us to be that sufficient time was not allowed for acquiring a sound knowledge of any one subject before it was dropped out of the list to make room for

another, thus tending to produce a broad and shallow acquaintance with a great variety of subjects.

The *prescribed* studies of the sophomore year are physics, rhetoric, philosophy, chemistry, history, French, and elocution; the *elective* studies are mathematics, Greek, Latin, Italian, and English. The *prescribed* studies of the junior year are only physics, logic, rhetoric, and chemistry; the *elective* are the same as in the sophomore year, with the additional *choice* of Spanish, German, and natural history. In the senior class philosophy and modern history, political economy, and religious instruction are *prescribed*, while the *elective* studies are the same as those of the junior year, excepting modern literature, patristic and modern Greek, geology, zoology, and anatomy, all of which are additional.

An elective study once taken must be continued through the year, and no change can be made from one extra study to another except at the beginning of term. Each sophomore is required to spend at least eight hours, each junior and each senior nine hours a week in lectures on the elective studies. Besides these, there are exercises by all the classes in composition and elocution, and the senior class has an exercise in forensics once a fortnight.

Examinations are held twice annually at the

close of the term. They are conducted entirely in writing, and extend over a period of two or three weeks. There is about to be established an annual examination for the senior class at which honours will be awarded, in imitation of the Oxford system. The prizes after graduation in the form of fellowships are few. Two fellowships have recently been founded for the "encouragement and attainment of a higher, broader, and more thorough scholarship than is required or expected of undergraduates in all sound literature and learning." The conditions attached to them are that the holder shall not marry, nor engage in any studies designed to prepare him, for a special profession. To secure this the corporation are to examine the holders of the fellowships from time to time. The incomes are small, being only about 100*l.* a year.

As to the method of teaching, the university recognizes the natural and physical sciences as indispensable branches of education, and has long acted on this opinion. The American college reacts on and supplements the American school. The improvement of the schools enables the college to advance its standard. It wishes to have science so taught as to develop and discipline those powers of the mind by which science has been created,—the power of observation, imagination, and sober judgment.

Philosophical subjects, as not being included

under the exact sciences, are taught by the "exposition and not by the imposition of opinions." To accomplish these ends there are both lectures and recitations; the former to afford guidance and method, the latter for the purpose of testing the pupil's mastery of the subject in hand for emulation and competition, competition being unnecessary in the lecture-room, where the respective merits of the pupils are decided by an examination for honours. For encouragement, also, the lectures are sometimes applauded, as in the Scotch and German universities, when the students desire to express their personal devotion to their teachers.

A dual government exists for the management of the university, the corporation and the board of overseers. These are not antagonistic to each other, but rather co-ordinate. The corporation of Harvard consists of six fellows, of whom the President of the university is *ex officio* President. They are usually wealthy merchants of Boston, elected on account of past or probable future acts of generosity to the university. This board holds the funds, makes appointments, fixes salaries, and has by right the initiative in all organic changes in the university. Thus the nature of their duties makes it necessary that the members of the corporation should be men of sound judgment and some financial experience. To them, moreover, falls the choice of candidates for honorary degrees and not to the

teaching element, on which the prestige of a university mainly depends.

Besides the corporation, which, as we have seen, is not necessarily connected by previous ties with the college, there is a board of overseers composed of graduates elected by the *alumni* for a term of six years, five retiring every year. This body has, therefore, a large and very intelligent constituency, and is rapidly renewed. Their real function is to stimulate and watch the President and fellows. Without the overseers, the President and fellows would be a board of private trustees, self-perpetuated and self-controlled. Provided, as it is, with two governing bodies the university enjoys that safeguard of all American governments, the natural equipoise of two bodies of different constitutions, powers, and privileges. Incident, also, to the overseers' power of inspecting the university is the important function of suggesting and urging improvements.

At Yale there is nothing in the constitution of the university answering to the overseers of Harvard, but the corporation is much larger. It consists of the President, ten clerical members self-elected, and eight *ex officio* members consisting of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and the six senior senators of the State.

Thus far we have been speaking of the college proper or undergraduate department of the univer-

sity. But besides this, and in intimate connexion with it, are several off-shoots from the parent stem, called "faculties," of each of which the President of the university is *ex officio* President. At Harvard these are the schools of theology, law, medicine, science, and dentistry; at Yale, theology, law, medicine, science, philosophy, and the fine arts. The total number of students in these schools at Harvard is 560, at Yale, 220.

The object and aim of these schools is to afford a more complete and careful training for the learned professions and for practical life than can be acquired in the ordinary university course. The theological course is completed in three years, the legal and medical course in two, and the scientific in one. Prizes and scholarships are awarded, and degrees are conferred on students in each of these schools on the completion of their studies. The students are required to lodge in licensed houses and to conform to the general discipline of the university as well as to the regulations of their particular department.

The aim of American education seems to be to give classical and scientific studies a predominance, but by no means a monopoly, in the university. The stern demands of practical life, the few rewards in the shape of fellowships, the few inducements in a commercial community for men to follow exclusively literary or scientific pursuits, all tend to make

the colleges of the New World (especially those of the Western States) mere schools, whose curriculum should be practical and general, and whose principal aim should be to fit students for the pursuits of commercial life, for "until the war with nature is over on the Continent of America the workshop is the college whose degrees will be most valued."

The newly-founded University of Cornell is "located" in the centre of the State of New York, near the town of Ithaca—a town of no peculiar charm or merits, for it is only an open rectangular village on a plain, about half a mile from Lake Cayuga. The university grounds are about half a mile distant from the town, on the summit of a long and steep hill. The first house which meets the traveller in his ascent from the village is "Cascadilla," a three-storied building of rough stone, standing on an acre of ground and surmounted by a cornice and roof without any pretensions to architectural beauty. When we visited the place there still remained a dismantled steam-engine and a portico of unplaned boards. On entering the building the visitor will find long corridors with doors opening on either side, numbered from one to two hundred, thus giving an idea of the size of the building. Those who have been educated in the classic shades of Oxford may be shocked to find evidences of female occupancy, and to see cats and dogs

through the open doors. The visitor will find no proctors, but here and there on the doors a card with the words, "Professor A., study," "Professor A., parlour," in which, if he enter, he will probably find Mrs. A. and her friends unmindful of the noisy students outside.

This admixture of the home and college life, and the intimacy which is thereby sought to be maintained between the tutors and the students, naturally seemed to us rather peculiar. Within the building most of the college officers reside with their families, without, however, exercising any control over the students.

A third of a mile distant from this are the other buildings of the university, but separated from it by a large ravine which has been bridged over by the paid labour of the students. On our way from this to the collection of buildings which form the university proper we pass through the farm of 200 acres. Near the farm buildings we come to University Hall, No. 1, and about 150 yards further on to another similar building, as yet not completed. Between these two a large central hall is to be built, and at the extremities of the wings a library and museum. At present, temporary buildings of wood supply the place of laboratories and lecture-rooms. The chemical apparatus is first-rate; and an ample fund has been put aside for the purchase of geological, anatomical, and other collections.

Each professor has been allowed to purchase whatever books and apparatus he required for this department, and the result is a fitness and suitability rare in college appointments.

The curriculum at Cornell is intended to embrace three courses—one classical, one mathematical and scientific, and one "mixed," with especial attention to the modern languages. In each of these courses degrees will be conferred. Students are not to be restricted to any one course, but they may select any three branches from the entire list and pursue them as they please, provided they conform to college discipline and pass the final examinations before graduating. "The idea of doing a student's mind a vague general good by studies which do not interest him will not prevail," to quote the words of the President's plan of organization. The theory of education here is to develop and utilize the tastes of a youthful intellect, and thus to render them more earnest and studious than is usual with students of the present day. There is to be a constant and mutual intercourse between the professors and students, and they are to endeavour mutually to forget and bridge over as far as possible the gulf which is traditionally fixed between tutor and pupil, professor and student. Boating and manly exercises also are encouraged and supported by the university.

The workshops and farm, the commercial and

mining schools are as yet in their infancy, but the military organization and education is already in full vigour, under the superintendence and management of a graduate of the West Point Military Academy. This officer is in one sense the head of the college, that is to say, all the discipline is under his management, and all the students are organized into companies, A, B, C, &c., and are so quartered in the dormitories. It is, we believe, intended that all the students shall wear a uniform and thus avoid any distinction in dress between the rich and the poor. There is to be a roll-call every morning, and a daily inspection of the dormitories, in which each occupant is responsible for good order. "Ungentlemanly" conduct is a serious offence, and lying is severely punished. The university fees amount to about four guineas a year, and the total expenses of each student are not quite 1*l.* a week if he have a room in the college, or 12*s.* a week if he board in the village.

Such is a brief account of the newest collegiate foundation in the United States. With such an organization and starting with such theories of education the result may be doubtful, but will be watched for with great interest. It is by no means certain that the experiment (for the whole university is an experiment in its theory and practice) will work well even on the "free soil of America." We cannot but fear lest such an institution, how-

ever grand in its conception, should in time degenerate from a university into a scientific school; and we may confidently assert that a system, based on military organization, would not work well in England.

As likely to prove interesting to our readers generally, and as illustrating those characteristics of university life which are not the least important element in their popularity with the fair sex, at any rate, on both sides of the Atlantic, we subjoin a short account of a visit to Harvard in June 1869, during their annual commemoration.

Nearly all the American colleges have one day at the end of the summer term (at the commencement of the vacation), which is devoted by the faculty to conferring honorary and ordinary degrees, and by the students to entertaining their friends. The "Class Day," as it is termed, at Harvard corresponds very much to the "Encænia" at Oxford. It is a day given up to the graduating class, who are for the nonce the observed of all observers. The distinctive feature of the day is the presence of ladies—the relations and friends of the graduating class. From the members of the class are chosen the marshall, orator, and poet, independently of those who are the prizemen of the year in the university, whose compositions are recited three days later. The programme on the day when we were there was as follows :—

At 10 a.m. the exercises of the day open and are held in the college chapel, all the members of the graduating class wearing full evening costume. The exercises commenced with the class essay on "Sincerity," which was followed by the poem, and next in order was recited the ode, from which the following lines are an extract :—

"Like the thousands before us we gather to-day,
And with beauty in blossom and gem ;
And we march on the world as high-hearted as they,
To forget, be forgotten, like them.
Forget thee, my Brother ? forgotten by thee?
Alma Mater, THY blessing forgot ?
Oh, dry with the dryness of ashes will be
The heart that remembereth not !"

At the conclusion of the exercises all the company adjourned to the "spreads" (as the cold collations are called) in the halls and rooms.

At 3 p.m. dancing began simultaneously on the green and in the college hall, and continued until 6 p.m., at which time the graduating class formed in marching order, cheered the buildings, and planted the class ivy, one of the class officiating as orator. After this the exercises at the tree took place. These consist in all the class scrambling for a wreath of roses fastened about ten feet from the ground around the largest tree in the lawn. This wreath having been successfully pulled to pieces, the class proceeded to knock each other

about, and to take particular pleasure in inflicting damage on each other's hats. In fact, hats seem to be special objects of aversion, but the rough treatment is anticipated and provided for by the initiated, who are careful to wear the most worthless they can obtain. Next came groans for the freshmen (who are not allowed to dance on this occasion) and cheers for the "University Six," the "Base Ball Nine," and the "International Four." After this dancing was resumed and kept up to a late hour. It seems strange that so many irrational customs should have taken such deep root in a university of comparatively modern foundation.

"Commencement Day," on which all the *alumni* of the college meet together, falls three days after "Class Day."

The day opens with a meeting of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, which on this occasion was under the presidency of Mr. James Russell Lowell. At ten o'clock the usual exercises, consisting of dissertations and orations by the members of the graduating class, were held in the chapel, and immediately afterwards degrees were conferred on the candidates. Next came the meeting of the associated *alumni*, by whom it was agreed to erect a monumental hall to those sons of Harvard who fell in the late war. At three o'clock the annual dinner of the *alumni* took place, and, on the tables being

cleared, the seventy-eighth Psalm was sung by all. Afterwards the President of the *alumni* delivered the customary address, followed by speeches from certain gentlemen, and a humorous poem by Mr. Lowell, of which we quote a few lines, as it refers to passing events of interest and illustrates the good humour which prevails :—

"Yet how repress a patriotic thrill?
R. J. half-squared our Alabama Bill.
Yes, if John Bull is rather hard to bear,
I rather calculate we had him there!
Thoughtless, he cried, 'Speak, speak, thou fearful guest!'
Raro deseruit—you recall the rest.
Johnson the First with words two folios fill'd,
Which at one swash his mightier namesake spill'd,
Like Sampson, with one jaw of Scriptural sort
He made Mat Arnold's Philistine his sport:
Not the broad ocean hinder'd limping Fate,
And all their dinners he made desolate.
Ah! let us own, before such facts as these,
There are set-offs in *moral* damages.
* * * *
O matre pulchra filia pulchrior,
Part, if you will, but sulk not into war:
Had Adams stayed this danger had not been—
This less than kindness of two more than kin."

In this way—with speeches and poems—the time passed pleasantly away, until, having sung "Auld Lang Syne," the company separated, to meet again the next year.

CHAPTER VIII.

FROM NIAGARA TO MONTREAL, QUEBEC, LAKE GEORGE, THE WHITE MOUNTAINS AND BOSTON.

NEAR the entrance of the Niagara into Lake Ontario, on the American side of the river, is Lewiston, seven miles from the falls, and connected with them by a railroad passing through some pretty scenery. If the traveller happens to have crossed the river at the falls and taken up his abode at the Clifton House, he will in all probability proceed by the railroad which connects the falls with Niagara, a village at the mouth of the river whose name it bears. This line passes through some finely-wooded scenery and near the heights of Queenstown, where stands a lofty column erected in memory of General Brock, who fell on the spot while leading the English soldiers in the war of 1812; opposite the village of Niagara on the American side of the river, is a frontier fort, garrisoned

by the Americans. At this place the steamer, which plies backward and forward on the Lake Ontario between Lewiston and Toronto, calls for passengers who have come from the falls by the route which passes through Canadian territory. Sailing on one of these large North-American lakes is much like going to sea. On some of them one may be almost entirely out of sight of land, and with the least wind the surface becomes considerably agitated.

The scenery is not particularly fine, on these lakes, as a rule, for the shores are low and uninteresting, except where broken by some village or homestead. They form a continuous chain of fresh-water communication (since a canal has been cut from Erie behind the Falls of Niagara to the place where that river again becomes navigable) from the Atlantic to Chicago, and boats frequently steam along them for ten days and nights without interruption. The steamboats are not, however, so comfortable as their colossal sisters on the Hudson and Fall river lines, and necessarily so, for the former are better sea-boats, and more strongly built, to stand the rough weather they frequently have to encounter in their voyages on these inland seas.

Toronto is the most populous city in Canada West, and has not that air of deadness and lack of energy that seems to hang like a pall over so much of the dominion, especially in the agricultural

districts. Toronto is the university city of Canada, and ranks well for its learning among the universities of the New World. The college buildings are solid and imposing in appearance, but not so academical as those of Harvard and Yale. It has the general aspect of a city that is rapidly increasing. The suburbs are marked by long rows of houses running along parallel roads, while between them lies a tract occupied by luxuriant weeds, brickbats, and unused mortar. The principal thoroughfare of the city is Young Street—a street, like those of Washington and many cities on the American continent, merely in prospective. As yet it does not deserve the name of street, for although it stretches out twenty-five miles in one direction, yet for a quarter of its length only has the ground been built on. That part, however, which is inhabited is handsome and well-built. The University buildings are fine, and from their tower an extensive view of the surrounding country can be obtained, stretching on the south side over the expanse of the waters of Ontario, on the north and east over primeval forests.

The only other building in the city worthy of note is that devoted to the study and practice of the law. On one side of this building are lecture-rooms and schools, in which the students pass their examinations; on the other, the courts of law.

During the summer of 1869 a meeting of the Canada Rifle Association — answering to our National Rifle Association, which holds a meeting on Wimbledon Common every year—took place here, and seemed very well attended, representatives from the remotest districts of the country being present to compete for the prizes. The uniforms are much like those worn in England; and, although none of the tents that had been pitched for the purpose appeared to be occupied at night, yet all on the ground seemed to take such an enthusiastic interest in the proceedings as to leave little doubt in the mind of an Englishman of the hearty loyalty of the colony.

From Toronto to the St. Lawrence that issues from the eastern end of the lake there is a choice of routes; one may go down the lake in a steamer, or by land on the Grand Trunk railway. The latter we should earnestly recommend any body who values the *mens sana in corpore sano* to avoid. The line not being in a very good pecuniary position, economy seems to be studied in every way. The rails in many places are worn and chipped to a thin band of metal, and as the cars proceed cautiously over them—their utmost speed seldom exceeding seventeen miles an hour—the passengers perceive a shaky jolting motion which is exceedingly unpleasant and suggestive of being tossed in a blanket. In 1868, the conductor in-

formed us, a car ran off the line every night; in 1869 they had been more fortunate, and these accidents had occurred, on the average, only once a week. When this occurs it does not delay the train much; the passengers are simply put into the other cars, and the one off the line is turned over on its side and the engine goes on without it.

At Kingston, 165 miles east of Toronto, the St. Lawrence leaves the lake; and here the steamer which has brought passengers down the lakes is sometimes changed for a lighter and faster one for the river journey to Montreal and Quebec. Kingston was once the capital of Canada, but is chiefly important now from being a military station. There are fortifications around the town; among them some martello towers. There seems to be a want of energy about the place so frequently conspicuous in Canadian towns. Those of the natives who are anxious for annexation to the States attribute this dulness to the blighting influence of the country's connexion with an empire; but the most intelligent Canadians look upon this connexion as a blessing, and would consider separation from the old country as their greatest misfortune. It is a very usual thing to hear a colonist grumbling at the necessity of having to pay for the privilege of governing himself, not at all seeing the unreasonableness of expecting the mother country both to let him do any thing in reason with his

own land, property, and person, and to pay the expenses of this course of action as well. A fellow-passenger of ours on the steamboat from Lewiston to Toronto informed us that he was a senator of the province of Ontario, and, mistaking us for Yankees, proceeded to abuse the people and Government of the United States, and to cast in our teeth all kinds of irritating remarks, assuring us that he did not like the Government much, nor the people at all; and, as for gentlemen, he had never found one in the States; but his experience must have been very small, and his acquaintance very limited. And in this strain the worthy senator talked on until we reached Toronto, when a number of English soldiers came on board the steamboat, and, on seeing their scarlet uniforms, this loyal Canadian turned round to us and remarked that this was the real cause of the want of energy and the absence of wealth among the people of the dominion; that they were impoverished by being compelled to contribute to the support of the English army. It is not likely, however, that the Canadians will ever think seriously of separation until the United States' national debt is considerably reduced.

It is a common piece of "bunkum" with mean Yankees to tell a Britisher how, if they liked, they could throw a million of men into Canada at a month's notice. And it is utterly useless to sup-

pose that we could defend it against them, unless we had the sympathies of the people heartily on our side. The most that we could do would be to blockade their ports till they would be anxious to give it up again. When the nest is better feathered, the American Eagle will condescend to walk in, but until there is a larger population, and the country is more developed the Americans will not be at all desirous to annex so "mean" a country as Canada. But it is happily extremely unusual to meet any person who is at all inclined to be bellicose in his way of talking. The nation as a body seem thoroughly sickened of war and its consequences, and to desire nothing so much as to try and lighten the incubus of debt which seems to crush with its weight the enterprise that would otherwise develop the resources and increase the wealth of the country.

Almost immediately on leaving Kingston the St. Lawrence is entered and the thousand islands are passed. The scenery of these is pleasing and interesting on the whole, but they do not rise sufficiently from the water to be exceedingly picturesque, and being covered, for the most part, with low shrubs instead of high trees, the effect is not so striking as the descriptions frequently given of them would lead people to expect. They will not bear comparison with the beauty and grandeur of the islands which a steamer passes through when approaching

Stockholm from the Baltic. The largest are about the size of the Isole Bella and de' Pescatori in the Lago Maggiore, and they range down to a small piece of rock just projecting from the water, but even the smallest is covered with foliage or small pine-trees. There is very good fishing and shooting to be had at times among these islands. Prescott (a town below the thousand islands at which all the steamers call) has some historical interest attached to it, for it was besieged by "the Patriots" in 1837. The windmill in which the raiders took refuge, and from which they were dislodged with great slaughter, stands near the water's edge.

Below this town are the Long Sault Rapids, the first of a series which occur between this place and Montreal. The vessel shoots them with a full head of steam. The current makes her move with extreme rapidity (a ship will *drift* down the nine miles of these rapids in forty minutes), and she has to be steered with excessive nicety to avoid the rocks in the channel. There is nothing very uncommon about the upper ones; they cause the ship to pitch and roll rather, and interfere considerably with the appetites of many of the lady passengers, otherwise one would hardly know the steamer was in troubled waters. In one of these rapids, however, in May, 1869, the steamer "Grecian" was wrecked. She was taking down two or three batteries of artillery, and

the heavy guns made her lie deeper in the water than usual. Nothing more important than passengers' luggage was lost. The hull was still lying in the middle of the stream in September. The St. Lawrence is throughout its course a noble river, for although sometimes it contracts, at other times it expands into a large lake twenty or thirty miles in width. The most difficult rapid to pass is that of Lachine, nine miles above Montreal. Before shooting this the steamer takes on board an old Indian as a pilot from his birch-bark canoe, who remains in charge of the vessel until it gains the calm water at the end of the rapid. It is exceedingly interesting, not to say alarming, to watch the steamer making her way past rocks over which the water is breaking in huge waves, as well as to see how she seems to be rushing headlong to destruction. She avoids the ledge of rocks a-head of her by a sudden turn almost at right angles to her former course, at a moment when the inexperienced observer thinks it is impossible that any thing can save her. No commander of a steamer will take his vessel down this rapid except in broad daylight and the brightest weather; but he can reach his destination without doing so by means of the canal, which all must make use of in ascending the river, so that it is always preferable to go *down* instead of *up* the St. Lawrence, as by adopting the former course a chance of shooting the rapids is gained—

an achievement which leaves an impression on the mind of the traveller not easily obliterated.

Below this rapid, near the city of Montreal, is the Victoria Tubular Bridge, which is nearly two miles long and connects the Island of Montreal with the southern bank of the river. It has twenty-four piers, the distance between the centre ones being 330 feet. The bridge was designed by Robert Stephenson, and opened in 1860 by the Prince of Wales. Over it pass the railroad lines connecting Burlington, St. Albans, and the Lake Champlain district with the Grand Trunk railroad of Canada.

The city of Montreal is situated on a large island of the same name, formed by the St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers, whose streams here converge without mingling their waters, the muddy Ottawa running along the left bank, while the clear blue St. Lawrence confines itself to the right, in much the same way as the yellow waters of the Aar keep themselves distinct for some distance from those of the bright blue waters of the Rhone. Upwards of a hundred miles from Montreal on this river lies Ottawa, the capital of Canada, where stand the Government buildings of the dominion, with a fortress resembling the citadel of Quebec. It is the great market for the staple of Canada, timber (or lumber, as it is called). Here are put together the great rafts which are met with on the

St. Lawrence *en route* for Quebec for shipment to Europe. They are usually towed down by a steamer, and have a small wooden house built on them, in which the persons in charge live, who are often a man and his family. Their progress is necessarily excessively slow.

The buildings in Montreal are very grand, being built solidly of stone; in fact some of the finest streets in Montreal would compare advantageously with any we possess in London. From the tower of the French Cathedral, which is 250 feet high, a very good bird's-eye view of the whole city and surrounding country may be obtained. These, with the river and mountains in the background, are exceedingly picturesque. Montreal is the centre of the commerce of Canada, and has the appearance of great wealth and prosperity, not possessing in the slightest that dead languid air that seems to hang over and depress so many of the principal Canadian towns. It derives immense advantages from its position, for it has direct communication with Europe by the largest ships, is at the point of junction of the two longest rivers of Canada, and within a day's sail of the vast system of inland lakes. At the same time it has the full benefit of its situation as an inland town, as it lies at the intersection of a system of railroads connecting the city with all the large towns of the North-American continent. With these advantages it can only be owing to the

inactivity and want of energy of its inhabitants, or possibly to the want of a sufficient population to form a nucleus for commercial undertakings on a large scale, that it is not pushed to the front place among the cities of the New World, while such places as Chicago and St. Louis, though with only a part of the above benefits of situation, are daily increasing in wealth and importance. The fact of the inhabitants of the last-named places neglecting no opportunity of advancing the interests both of themselves and their town is the cause of this rapid growth. If the traveller has time, he will of course visit the Gibraltar of America—Quebec; but if time is of importance to him, he can reach Boston or New York by a more direct route from Montreal; and at the same time pass through some very picturesque scenery. In the former case he would continue his trip down the St. Lawrence, in the latter he would travel by railroad to Lake Champlain, and thence through Saratoga to Albany and New York.

From Montreal to Quebec, and *vice versâ*, runs every night a fine steamer carrying the mails. For the purposes of this navigation beacon lights are placed at all the bends of the river, and, though the steamers, which are second in size and appointments only to the night-boats on the Hudson and Fall river lines, rush along at the rate of from sixteen to twenty miles an hour, an accident from

collision or running aground is of extremely rare occurrence.

On entering the city of Quebec the European is struck by its resemblance to an old-fashioned town in Normandy. The vulgar tongue is French; the names and trades over the shops, the long two-wheeled carts, the dirty, crooked, and stony streets are also French.

In passing from the States into Canada the traveller is struck with the want of activity and energy which is the principal characteristic of the people of the United States. The question arises, to what is this so marked difference attributable?

In *Canada East* there are three especial points of difference, viz. in government, race, and religion.

The climate of many parts is not colder or subject to more changes than that of several Northern States. The winters of Vermont and Minnesota are more severe than those of Niagara.

As to the race. The majority of the people are of French extraction and still preserve their characteristics of living in villages and not being able to bear isolation. Among the French there has been no dying out; they have increased many times over in the last century. Their religion, their laws, their language have remained unaltered. When their work is over they play on the green in the evening, and lead an easy life. They do not drink wine; a little treacle is the only article of consumption

which the French Canadian farmer cannot produce for himself; his farm supplies all his other simple wants.

As to their religion. In every garden we find the cross and cock, the symbols of faith and watchfulness. He places implicit confidence in his creed; he is harassed by no doubts, hence his mind is always at peace; and this may account for the utter absence in him of energy, the peculiar characteristic of the Anglo-Saxons.

The French love their country, and whenever they go abroad they are thinking of France and of the time when they shall return to their beloved Paris; Englishmen on the other hand, however much they may mingle with the people of other nations, seldom or never adopt their language, but in most cases their own language, provided they are sufficiently numerous, predominates. "They proselytize, but are not proselytized. They assimilate other nations to themselves, but are not assimilated. The English did not calculate the conquest of the Indies, it fell to their character. So they administer in different parts of the world the codes of every empire and race. In Canada, old French law; in the Mauritius, the code Napoleon; in the West Indies, the edicts of the Spanish cortes; in the East Indies, the laws of Menu." But in Canada East we see the manners and institutions of old France still fostered under the protection

of English soldiers. The advertisements and the newspapers are all written in French *patois.*

As to Government. The present Dominion is a Confederation of Provinces, with distinct capitals and legislatures, and with a general Parliament or Congress. Each province has to support its own governing Council, Parliament, and officials; and besides this, the Governor-General and other officers of the Dominion have to be paid for. The Governor-General receives 10,000*l.*, the governors of provinces 1600*l.* per annum.

A person coming to Quebec from Montreal seems to have gone back a century in the course of his night's journey. The large steamers lying in the river are the only things that seem thoroughly to belong to the nineteenth century. In Quebec is no hurry or bustle, every thing moves solemnly and with the regularity of clock-work. Marie, spinning at her door in a snowy-white cap and short dress, nods to Jacques as he passes on the shafts of his *charrette,* drawn by a punchy little horse with a high-peaked collar.

Above the city, with its tin roofs that glisten one above the other in the sun giving to it the appearance of being built of silver, frowns the citadel, which appears from its position to be almost impregnable. Two regiments of British troops now occupy it. The highest point commands magnificent views of the river, of the surrounding hills, the

Island of Orleans, and the Plains of Abraham, etc. The Island of Orleans is opposite Quebec, the St. Lawrence running on either side of it. Wolfe, in sailing up to the point where he landed, passed through the channel not ordinarily in use, and which the French did not believe navigable. He forced a Canadian to pilot his ships through this channel, threatening him with instant death if the foremost vessel touched the ground—had this gone ashore the fleet would have been at the mercy of the French. The enemy were guarding the other channel, and Wolfe passed up unobserved and without impediment, to a spot about three leagues above where he intended to disembark. At night, however, he placed his troops in flat-bottomed boats, drifted down the river, and landed underneath the Plains of Abraham, which lie just above the city, and had formed his army in order of battle before Montcalm could bring out sufficient force to oppose him successfully. The result of the battle is well known—how the commanders on both sides were mortally wounded, and how, after the defeat of the French, they surrendered the town to the English before it had been completely invested, while a large force were actually marching to their relief. A monument to Wolfe now stands on the spot where he died, bearing the inscription, "Here died Wolfe victorious, September 13th, 1759." It is a stone pillar, erected in 1849 by the

British North-American army in place of the original one, which had been broken and defaced by persons who took away pieces of it to keep. The fragments of the latter are buried beneath the present one, which is protected from a similar fate by an iron railing.

Nine miles below Quebec, on the other side of the St. Charles river, are the Falls of Montmorency, a picturesque water-fall about 250 feet high. The chief merit of the excursion is the succession of beautiful views of Quebec and the surrounding country that present themselves during the drive. No licenses for the sale of strong drink are granted in this part of Canada—a regulation, however, that appears to be quite as much honoured in the breach as in the observance.

The French cathedral in Quebec is two hundred years old. Close by it stands a small chapel possessing, as we were told, "the finest paintings in the world." The pictures are certainly worth a visit, though they can hardly claim the proud distinction with which the American disposition for hyperbole has invested them.

The most favourite excursion to be made from Quebec is the voyage up the Saguenay, a river falling into the St. Lawrence 140 miles below Quebec. It runs upwards of 120 miles from Lake St. John to its mouth, and its chief characteristic

is the gloomy grandeur of its scenery. For sixty miles its course is perfectly straight, between precipices rising abruptly from the water, which is of unknown depth. There is no anchorage in the river for a great distance, but huge iron rings have been driven into the walls of rock to moor vessels to.

From Quebec the White Mountains may be reached *via* the Grand Trunk railroad. This is a hilly district, forty miles square, in the State of New Hampshire, though the White Mountains *par excellence* are a group of about a dozen peaks, of which Mount Washington is the highest. This district the New Englanders love to compare with Switzerland. Its most lofty mountain is somewhat less in altitude than Mount Pilate on the Lake of Lucerne; and, as the tourist may be comfortably driven to the summit of Mount Washington on a coach, or ascend in a railroad train, and be set down at the door of an hotel on arrival, probably there are not sufficient chances of meeting with a violent death to warrant the formation of an American Alpine Club for the exploration of the district.

The view from the summit is extensive, including the Green Mountains and the peaks of the White Mountain district, the blue waters of Lake Winnipisaukee and several smaller lakes, with the Connecticut and Saco rivers in the distance.

Tuckerman's Ravine, the Great Notch, the Devil's Den, and the Silver Cascade are places usually visited in this district. It is advisable to explore the region not earlier than July not later than the beginning of September, as the hotels close and the coaches cease running at the earliest appearance of a break-up in the weather.

From the White Mountains Boston may be reached by steamboat, railroad, and coaches, passing by Concord, Conway, and Lake Winnipisaukee; or by railroad to Portland, and thence by steamers along the coast. But supposing that the traveller has been unable to continue his voyage further down the St. Lawrence than Montreal, he would proceed by railroad to Plattsburg on Lake Champlain, where he would go on board one of a magnificent line of steamers which ply by day and night on the lake. At the northern extremity of this lake a naval engagement was fought between the English and Americans in the war of 1812, in which the former were worsted. The guide-books, however, are sadly partial in their accounts of this, as of many other battles fought between the Americans and the English. They append to an account of a naval battle which resulted in the capture of the British fleet, a vivid description of the furious assaults of Sir George Prevost with 14,000 men (his whole army was only 11,000 strong and never struck a blow) for two hours on the town,

which was defended by General Macomb with 3000 men. The guide-books estimate the British loss at 2500, which in reality was only 800 men, and even these deserted to the enemy without being in action.

The views on this lake are not very remarkable or varied, the most pleasing feature being the Adirondac Mountains, whose summits stand out against the sky in the distance. At Fort Ticonderoga, 110 miles from Plattsburg, we disembark and proceed by a stage to Lake George This journey overland between the two lakes is most amusing, for the dulness of the scenery is enlivened by anecdotes from the proprietor of the stage, who at intervals, ordering the driver to "pull up," emerged, like a "Jack-in-the-box," from the interior of the coach and played the part of a showman. At one place he pointed out the relative positions of the English and French; at another, of the English and Americans, being at great pains to explain how the American general outwitted his English cousin on the battle-field. At one place he halted his horses and said, in a loud voice, "Ladies and Gents,—Here you see a wonderful ph*ai*nomenon —an oak and an elm growing from the same trunk. You can see for yourselves, ladies and gents, that one is an oak and the other an elm, by observing the leaves. I cannot account for this strange ph*ai*nomenon, ladies and gents, unless it be that

the soil of the State of New York is the finest *union* soil the sun ever shone on! And all I can say is, What God hath joined together, let not man cut asunder. Drive on, George!" This facetious gentleman travels on this route regularly twice daily, so that any one who is anxious to verify our statements can easily do so.

Arrived at Lake George, the traveller will go on board a mail steamer, the "Minnehaha," which runs down the lake (forty miles) to the Fort William Henry Hotel. The scenery on this lake is very grand, although somewhat monotonous. Well-wooded mountains rise from the very bosom of the lake to a height of from two to five thousand feet, and its surface is studded with islets overgrown with luxuriant verdure. The Fort William Henry Hotel is a spacious building, with accommodation for 1000 guests, and faces the lake. The hotel has taken its name from an old British fort which stood on its site, and near it was the burying-ground. The proprietor, about a year ago, was making excavations, when he discovered 200 skeletons of English soldiers, who had probably died in action as they were buried in their uniforms. He identified their nationality by the buttons on their coats. Among the skeletons was one measuring seven feet, and the sword by its side was eighteen inches longer than any other. This man was in all probability the drummer of the regiment, for in those

days the drummers were always conspicuous for their size.

From this hotel a stage-coach runs daily to Fort Edward railroad station. All the ground along the route was often fought over by French and English in the middle of the last century, for Lakes Champlain and George were the highway between Canada and the river Hudson, and thence the transit to New York was easy. At one point *en route* we pass the "Bloody Pond," into which 600 English soldiers were thrown, after they had surrendered to 8000 French on condition that they were allowed to retire to Albany, the head-quarters of the English army at that time. Instead of this, they were treacherously handed over to the Indians. So runs one of the many legends with which this part of the country teems. The same spot is mentioned as the scene of a cruel murder by an Indian in Cooper's "Last of the Mohicans." From Fort Edward station trains run through Saratoga to Albany, and thence the traveller may proceed, either by land or down the Hudson river, to New York or Boston.

Boston is one of the oldest cities of America, and its population is now somewhat less than 200,000. It is called in an ironical way by the inhabitants of other American cities, "the *hub* of the universe"—the hub of a wheel being the round piece of wood in the centre from which the spokes radiate. It receives this name from the supposition

that its inhabitants consider themselves decidedly citizens of no mean city. They certainly have good reasons for so doing, for it is the centre round which are congregated most of the refinement and intellect of the United States, as well as the home of nearly all the oldest American families who can trace their descent from the pilgrim fathers. It was the scene of the first collision between the king's troops and the colonists in the war of the Revolution. Into its harbour were thrown the obnoxious cargoes of the two English tea-ships by the "sons of liberty," who had dressed themselves as Indians, fearing unnecessarily that their actions would not prove them to be savages. About a mile from the city, on the heights of Charlestown, was fought the battle of Bunker's Hill (or, more properly, Brede's Hill), in memory of which an obelisk has been erected, most likely to commemorate the stupid mismanagement of the British general, though two Americans out of three are probably not aware that the engagement did not result in a splendid victory for them.

Near this lies the navy yard, which appeared in 1869 to have turned all its energies to building monitors, as a large wooden steam-ship lay neglected on the stocks, while a two-turretted iron-clad was being hurried towards completion with all possible speed. Alongside of her were lying two of the original monitors that were in use in the war

each having a single turret. They present the most curious appearance, as when lying in harbour without their stores the edge of the deck is scarcely one foot from the water. They very much resemble a floating Spanish flat-iron without a handle, and with a short tube sticking up in the centre. They have no bulwarks; their place is supplied by iron stanchions and a chain; and the deck is slightly arched to allow of the sea running off, which no doubt breaks most freely over the ship in rough weather. In going into action this deck and the turret is covered with a thick layer of grease, to cause any shot that may strike them to glance more easily. It is seldom that they are hit, for the target the ship presents is very small. Below the accommodation is exceedingly limited, about fifteen officers being packed into a cabin not ten feet square. The turret is turned by an auxiliary steam-engine, and the portholes are never exposed to the enemy except at the moment when the guns deliver their fire, when they are almost closed by the muzzle of the cannon. When steam is up the temperature of the engine-room is 150°, that of the rest of the ship 120°. As may be supposed, monitors are not popular with the officers of the American navy.

Three miles from Boston, on the other side of the Charles river, lies Cambridge, where stands Harvard College. The town was originally forti-

fied with a stockade for protection against the Indians. The buildings are massive and heavy, with no particular claims to architectural effect. They form three sides of a square, with a lawn and trees in the centre; the latter considerably take from the heaviness of the general appearance. Near Harvard College stands the tree under which Washington took command of the Republican army; and the house which he made his head-quarters during the siege of Boston is now occupied by Mr. Longfellow the poet.

The city of Boston proper was originally built on five hills, which rise from a narrow neck of land bounded on one side by the Charles river and on the other by the sea. As the city has increased in size, and exceeded the limits which nature intended, a large part has been built on *made* land, formed by filling up the river with rubbish. On the opposite side of the river is East Boston, a suburb of considerable dimensions; and in another direction is South Boston, where many of the public and charitable institutions of the city—the asylum, the reformatory, the house of correction, and the blind institution—are "located."

In the centre of Boston is a sort of park about fifty acres in extent, called Boston Common. It is overlooked by the State House, a fine building with a dome, whose summit commands an extensive view of the city and surrounding country. In the in-

terior are preserved the shattered flags and ensigns which "braved the battle and the breeze" in the war of the rebellion, and those which were captured from the enemy.

Boston is the most English in appearance of all American cities. Its streets have the mist of time hanging about them, and are crooked and narrow. It is not laid out in squares as nearly all the cities of the New World are. The suburbs are very pretty, although unsubstantial looking; each villa stands in its own ground and is surrounded by a wall or railing.

Boston is better provided than any city of its size in the States with the means of affording gratuitous education of a high order to its inhabitants. Besides its common schools, it has a public library, an athenæum, a mercantile library, a historical society founded in 1791, a natural history museum, and a school of technology. In the lower part of the city is the Massachusetts' General Hospital, near which are the buildings of the Harvard Medical School, famous for an anatomical museum (whose eccentric founder ordered by his will that his skeleton should be placed among the other specimens), and for having been the scene of the murder of Dr. Parkman by Dr. Webster in the laboratory of the college. An account of this murder and the discovery of the body appeared a few years ago in *All the Year Round.*

The best hotels are the Tremont, the Revere, and the Parker Houses (the latter conducted on the "European plan") in Boston proper, and the St. James's Hotel in South Boston.

The climate of Boston is most disagreeable. In winter the thermometer frequently falls many degrees below zero, with deep snow and a piercing east wind; and in summer it rises to 100° in the shade by day. The climate, in fact, of this section of the country has developed the brains of the people at the expense of their muscle. The soil is poor and stony, and the climate is, as we have said, very extreme. The poverty of the soil and the severity of the climate is the reason to some extent of the restlessness of the New Englanders. It is this which causes the people to seek their fortunes Westward; it is this which takes them on the ocean (for nearly all the shipping of the States is owned by New Englanders); it is this which causes them to resort to manufactures.

Boston is the hot-bed of New Englandism, and New Englandism is the leaven which leavens the whole country, is the balance-wheel which regulates all the movements—political and religious—of the United States. When the rebellion broke out in 1861, and Lincoln needed men for the defence of Washington, he telegraphed to Boston, not to New York which is nearer; and Massachusetts

sent out no less than 150 regiments to aid in crushing slavery.

The principal summer resorts of the Bostonians are Newport, Nahant, Swampscott, and Beverley. The manufacturing towns of Lowell and Lawrence are about thirty miles distant; Salem (where the scene of the New England tragedies and of Nathaniel Hawthorne's tales is laid) and Peabody (the birthplace of the philanthropist of that name) are about twelve miles distant by railroad.

The surrounding country was originally settled by people from the West of England, who endeavoured to preserve the traditions of the homes they had left by naming their settlements in the New World after them, so that in going from Boston to Newport the train passes near Bristol, Taunton, Tiverton, and Plymouth.

In the city of Boston churches seem to spring up like mushrooms. There is a church at the corner of every street, and every sect is represented—Spiritualists, Universalists, Episcopalians, Congregationalists, Unitarians, Methodists, and many others.

On the "New Land," near the Providence railroad station, is the Colosseum, in which was held in the summer of 1869 the great Peace Festival, which took the form of a monster concert. The orchestra included 20,000 voices. There was an enormous drum made expressly for the occasion, a battery of artillery fired by electricity to repre-

sent the bass notes, and an "anvil chorus" played by 100 men of the fire brigade on 100 anvils. Opinions differed as to the merits of the performance, which answered well as a speculation, for the projector cleared 10,000*l.* by the affair.

The fire-alarm system which obtains in Boston and its suburbs is probably the most perfect in the world. It is worked by a large staff of men whose head-quarters are at the top of the City Hall, in the centre of Boston. At the corner of every street, and at certain intervals elsewhere, is an alarm-box, the key of which is kept at the house to which the box is fastened. On a fire being discovered, the nearest box is opened, and a handle inside is turned round a certain number of times. Each of these boxes is connected by means of an electric wire with the head-quarters of the brigade, where a watchman is in constant attendance by night and day. On receiving notice of a fire from any given box (each has a number assigned to it, which number is telegraphed to the central office), the watchman sets in motion some electric machinery which is connected by wires with one bell in every church in the city, and it tolls out the number of the box at which the alarm was originally given. To this *rendezvous* all the firemen of the district hasten with their steam fire-engines, which are always kept in readiness with steam up and the horses harnessed. Every one carries a card which gives

the name of the locality to which the numbers sounded by the alarm-bells belong. But the cost of this system far exceeds that of the London Fire Brigade, although far fewer men are employed; fires, however, are more frequent in American cities where so many houses are built of wood, and the damage done is consequently greater.

CHAPTER IX.

SARATOGA TO THE MAMMOTH CAVE.

THE village of Saratoga Springs is to the Northern States what Bath was to England at the commencement of the nineteenth century. During July and August it is the resort of much of the wealth and fashion of the country; during the rest of the year it is simply a village in whose streets stand some enormous hotels, resembling palaces of the dead, as monuments of what had been during the past season, inhabited only by a few valetudinarians who visit the place for the benefit of the waters. The town consists of a long street—the sidewalks shaded by trees—in which are these hotels, and the railroad station. The season commences early in July and continues until the lady leaders of fashion have exhausted the gorgeous contents of the enormous trunks named after the place which they bring with them in vast numbers—seventeen to twenty-

six being the ordinary complement of baggage of a lady of fashion. Each article of their extensive wardrobe has usually been displayed by the end of August, and within a week or two the place has subsided into its ordinary humdrum state.

The Union and Congress are the two largest hotels in the place, accommodating from 800 to 1000 persons each. Of course they are only full during the summer, and their proprietors have to make up then for the want of business during the rest of the year. On the ground-floor of each of these buildings is a huge room in which a very fair band plays in the evening; the visitors sit round and listen to the music, if there is no ball or other attraction elsewhere on that evening to draw them from their hotels. The younger visitors dance whenever they have the opportunity; the ceremony of an introduction being almost unnecessary.

The route most convenient for a person intending to proceed westward from Saratoga Springs is that *via* Albany to Detroit and Chicago by the Rensselaer, New York, and Michigan Central railroads. Through-trains, on arriving at Windsor (Canada), are taken for half a mile across the Detroit river to the city of that name in a huge steam ferry; but should the traveller have been incautious in his selection of a train, he will very probably find himself obliged to cross the river in an ordinary steamboat, and "lie over" at Detroit

from six to twelve hours before he can proceed on his way to Chicago. Possibly, also, he will have to pass the ordeal of the American custom-house, where he will be mulcted in heavy penalties for any furs, Indian fans, photographs, or articles of Canadian produce with which he may have proposed to soothe the minds of his anxious relatives for his prolonged absence.

Detroit lies midway between Lakes Huron and Erie, and is a thriving city with a considerable trade, as the steamers and vessels on their way from Chicago to Montreal and Quebec through the lakes usually touch there to receive and discharge cargo. The streets are long and broad, with tramways in the centre and wooden sidewalks in a more or less dilapidated condition. The night journey to Chicago from this city occupies about eleven hours, and in the morning, about one hour before reaching Chicago, a Pullman's hotel-car, containing breakfast ready laid-out, is attached for the benefit of those passengers who have passed the night in a sleeping-car. This convenience is due to the desire of the directors of the line to make their road part of the route of through-passengers from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The Michigan Central railroad station at Chicago is one of the largest and best in America, its arched roof much resembling, on a smaller scale, that of the new Midland station in London. Here there

is an excessively convenient mode of sorting the passengers by each train into various omnibuses destined for the different sections of the city as they issue from its doors. There are generally two or more omnibuses to each section for every fast train.

Chicago may well be termed the "mushroom city" of the New World on account of its wonderfully rapid growth. Richard Cobden's advice to Goldwin Smith on his visit to the United States of America was: "You should see two things, if nothing else —Chicago and Niagara." In 1830 it was only a military post and fur station, consisting of twelve habitations and a log fort with its garrison of two companies of soldiers, and three taverns frequented by drunken Indians who traded in furs.

In 1831 there were twelve white families contending with the natural difficulties of their situation, which must have much resembled those of Martin Chuzzlewit and Mark Tapley at Eden on the Missouri.

In 1832 the taxes amounted to 151 dollars; and at a cost of twelve dollars the first public building, a pound for stray cattle, was erected.

In 1833 the rush to the place began, and there were fifty families struggling for existence, for the prairie on that part of the shore of Lake Michigan is as flat as a table and slightly below the level of the water in the lake, with which it was occasionally

covered to the depth of a few inches. On this spot the rank and fashion of Chicago now reside.

In 1834 a "freshet" carried off the bar at the mouth of the river.

In 1836 its inhabitants numbered 4000.

In 1837 its enterprise may be said to have fairly begun.

In 1838 only 39, but in 1842 600,000 bags of wheat were exported.

In 1848 the population of the city amounted to 20,000, and in the same year a canal was opened which connected it with the Mississippi. In six years from this time it was permanently established as a large and thriving city.

In 1853 its exports of corn were 3,000,000 bags, in 1860 15,000,000 bags, and in 1866, after the war, 30,000,000 bags.

All the shipping and transhipping, loading and unloading of this vast amount of corn is performed by elevators, for which the city is celebrated. They pump the grain into huge bins and discharge it thence into cars or vessels on the other side of the building, the double operation being performed by steam in an incredibly short space of time, and under the most careful supervision that grain of various qualities may not be deposited in a wrong bin. The class to which each consignment belongs is fixed by inspection, and the corn is then immediately poured into a particular bin. The

owner never sees his own grain again, but carries away with him the receipt of the clerk of the elevator. By means of these vouchers all the business is transacted.

Chicago is not only famous for the rapid and easy raising and conveyance of grain, but for that of *houses*, even while the inhabitants are carrying on their usual avocations inside. An English banker in the city pointed out to us a crack in his room, which he said was caused by the house (not at all inferior in size to most of the large houses of business in Cannon Street, London) being lifted while he and the other occupants of the building went on with their avocations as usual. The Tremont House (the second hotel in the place, being more frequented by commercial people than the Sherman House, which ranks as the first) was raised twelve feet above its original foundation, though it is a building at least as large and solid as the Charing Cross Hotel. Both of these houses were built of stone. Compared with such undertakings as this the lifting and removing of wooden structures seems an easy operation; we saw one raised several feet in a few minutes, and in the course of a walk we witnessed the novel sight of a house moving along the street on rollers. A wooden church was moved from the corner of a street to that of the next but one, where it has since remained. The means employed to effect

this are as follows:—The earth is dug away from beneath a small portion of the foundations and screw-jacks inserted underneath that part, then the process is continued until the whole building rests only on these instruments, which are then gradually screwed up simultaneously and the building raised to the required height. If it is a wooden house and has to be removed to another situation, it is then placed on rollers, horses are harnessed to it, and it is taken to its new position. If the building is brick or stone (or being of wood is not required to be removed) the screw-jacks are taken away after supports have been placed underneath to retain it in its elevated position. The reason why most of these buildings require to be raised is that the city of Chicago was originally built beneath the level of the lake, and for fear of inundation the streets are now made some feet higher than formerly, and the buildings on either side consequently require to be lifted to the same level.

As Boston is called the "hub of the universe," so Chicago is named the "centre of creation." Every thing is rush, hurry, and business; and every thing seems to give evidence of wealth recently and rapidly acquired. On asking an intelligent citizen why poor people or beggars are never met with, and what became of those who would not or could not work, we were answered shortly, "They *steal*."

The streets are full of people, and along the prin-

cipal ones are large and elegant shops, in which one may buy any thing, from a Dahlgren cannon to a bushel of peaches. The supply of peaches seems almost inexhaustible, and the price is as low as 1*s.* the bushel.

The river hardly deserves the name, for it is a bifurcated inlet of the lake which loses itself in the morasses of the prairie. Chicago, being built on either side of this inlet, has thirty miles of wharves. The drawbridges over the branches of the river are a hindrance to rapid locomotion. It seems as if they are always open to allow a ship to be drawn by a small tug to or from the lake when any one wishes to pass rapidly from one part of the city to another. They are opened and closed, however, by machinery with wonderful rapidity, and, in this respect, Chicago is far in advance of more eastern cities.

Four miles south of the city on the prairie are the famous stock-yards, which cover a square mile of land owned by a company. This "city of cattle," like all Western cities, has its streets at right angles; the principal one is named Broadway. Here the cattle are weighed at the rate of fifty per minute. The company owning the place derive their profit from the sale of hay and corn; their only expenses being the wages for the labour employed in cleaning and attending to the pens.

On the prairies around the city roads, canals,

&c., are easily constructed, in consequence of there being no rocks or stumps of trees to be removed or rising ground to be avoided or cut through.

At a distance of 280 miles south-west of Chicago, on the western side of the Mississippi, lies St. Louis, which has no direct railroad communication with the country lying east of that river, but all goods and passengers arriving at East St. Louis (where are the depôts of the St. Louis, Alton, and Chicago railroad, and of the line from Cincinnati) have to be transferred to steam ferries before they can reach St. Louis proper. On the arrival of the train the passengers are classified according to the section of the city they are going to, and are put "on board" about half a dozen omnibuses, each with four horses and destined for a different part of the town. They then proceed literally to plough their way down the bank of the stream, which consists of mud more or less deep, according to the time that may happen to have elapsed since the last heavy rainfall. The outside passengers have to hold on as best they can till they reach the ferry-boat, which will contain the whole of the six omnibuses with their four horses, and perhaps ten country carts and waggons at the same time. These ferries are not built for great speed and are not driven by side-wheels, as are those of New York, but consist of two boats with a huge centre-wheel between them and the engines at the side,

while a platform between the two forms one deck for the whole.

The Mississippi is here about a mile and a half in width, and as the steamer forces its way across what Dickens describes as "an enormous ditch, running liquid mud at the rate of six miles an hour," the traveller has time to compare the reality with his previously formed idea of what the Mississippi would be like. It is far more muddy and turbid than the Thames at London Bridge (if we may be allowed to compare small things with great), but the muddy state of the water is due principally to the Missouri, which enters it about twenty miles higher up; the Mississippi itself having a much slower and clearer stream than its vast tributary. They both constantly overflow their banks, and carry with them a great quantity of alluvial soil which is deposited at the outlet in the Gulf of Mexico. The river has already pushed its mouths a hundred miles into the sea beyond the general shore-line. Together the two streams are navigable by steamboats for a distance of considerably over 3000, and their total length is about 4300, miles. The traveller by steamer who ventures to traverse the whole navigable length of the river will be fortunate indeed if, besides the artificial perils of fire or boiler-explosion, he escape those from snags (large trees fixed in the bed of the stream) and shallows. The Ohio enters the Mississippi 200

miles below St. Louis, giving that place water communication with Louisville and Cincinnati, while by the Mississippi steamers can reach New Orleans, Vicksburg, Cairo, Alton, &c. Hence St. Louis is almost as favourably situated as Chicago as regards water communication.

St. Louis may be called the Philadelphia as Chicago is named the New York of the West. In the former wealth is acquired more slowly and surely, and speculation is entered into less recklessly than in the latter. In St. Louis people find time as well as means for living. This city is built on the eastern bank of the river, which is far more steep than the western, and its merchants have far greater difficulty in bringing their wares from the great highway to the stores than those of Chicago, which is at the level of the water.

The city was founded in 1763 by French pioneers from New Orleans. A few years afterwards, however, all the country west of the Mississippi was ceded by the French to Spain. Its inhabitants subsisted principally by hunting and trapping. It was ceded to the United States in 1804; and from 1830 to 1860 the population trebled every ten years. In 1764 it had 120, in 1830 it had 5800, and in 1867 as many as 210,000 inhabitants. There is no obstacle to its growth in any direction as there is to that of so many large cities of the United States. For instance, New York is confined by two rivers; Boston

cannot grow without making the ground to grow on; and Chicago has to be raised artificially some ten or twelve feet. There is no commercial centre, no crowded thoroughfare, the greatest part of the business done is transacted in the streets parallel with the river. The streets near the river are narrower and more crooked than the rest—a relic of the old French occupation.

The majority of its population are Germans, and Roman Catholics by religion. They sympathized strongly with the South during the war, and at that time several duels from political causes were fought in the Southern Hotel in Walnut-street, which is the best in the city.

The suburbs consist of streets lined with villa residences with trees in front of them. About three miles from the city is a German *bier-garten,* to which most of the inhabitants appear to betake themselves on the national holidays.

Steamers are constantly leaving St. Louis for New Orleans, which lies 1200 miles down the river near its mouth; but a traveller may obtain an exceedingly good idea of the general features of the "Mother of Waters," without undertaking the tedious voyage to Louisiana, by stopping at Cairo, where the Ohio joins the Mississippi, and taking another steamer up the former river to Louisville and Cincinnati.

This city can be reached far more safely (it is

said that every week some steamboat is blown up or burnt on these rivers) by railroad from St. Louis in less than twelve hours. This line traverses the State of Illinois in an almost direct line across the prairie. The sleepers seem to have been simply laid on the ground and the rails put across them when the line was built. For miles scarcely any thing is to be seen except the perfectly level plain stretching away to the horizon on all sides; occasionally a belt of timber comes in view marking the course of some small stream. Any one walking or riding across these prairies would be as completely lost on a cloudy day, if he had not a compass, as he would be at sea.

Cincinnati was formerly termed the "Queen of the West;" but now that the line to San Francisco is complete the Americans allow nothing east of Omaha to be in the West. The principal feature of Cincinnati is its suspension bridge across the Ohio at a great height from the water; the roadway is slightly arched as it would be if the bridge were constructed of brick or stone.

The scenery round Cincinnati is very pretty, and a visit to Clifton well repays the trouble of the drive. There is a cemetery in the vicinity which is quite an ornamental object in the view—the Americans understand how to lay these out so as to be a beauty rather than an eyesore in the landscape.

If the traveller should have come by railroad from St. Louis to Cincinnati, he will probably be anxious to see something of the Ohio, which may be accomplished by taking the steamer to Louisville, a trip which occupies about fourteen hours. The banks of the river are low and covered with wood; the stream itself has a very winding course and sluggish current. There are shallows in many places, obliging the steamboats to be built with the least possible draught of water. Many of the freight boats and tugs on the river have one large paddle-wheel at the stern, and are hence called "stern-wheel" boats, in contradistinction to the ordinary "side-wheel" boats. This wheel at the stern has no paddle-box or covering of any kind, and gives the steamer a very peculiar appearance. Almost every American river steamboat has two tunnels in a line, one on each side, and during the night a red lamp is placed near the top of one, and a green lamp in the same position on the other. When the pilot sees a red and green lamp in the distance, he knows that a steamer is approaching in the opposite direction. He immediately whistles once or twice, to show whether he intends to pass to the left or right of it. This whistle is acknowledged in the same manner by the other vessel, and the danger of collision between two boats in the dark is thus to a great extent obviated.

The passenger steamboats on this river have a

distinct place set apart for negroes, which they call the "freedmen's bureau;" for although so many Yankees laid down their lives in order to secure for their black brethren equal rights with themselves, yet they do not care to eat or sleep in their vicinity. About fifty feet of the lower end of the saloon, too, is devoted to the accommodation of ladies, and furnished with a piano, &c., and, as there is no actual partition, the passengers of the other sex can listen and applaud from a distance their vocal and instrumental music, which is sometimes exceedingly good.

On fine nights during the summer and early autumn very vivid flashes of sheet lightning shoot through the sky two or three times a minute, no forked lightning that is ever seen in Great Britain at all approaches the brilliancy of these flashes, which sometimes seem to fall from the clouds like balls of fire.

About 130 miles below Cincinnati on the Ohio is Louisville, the principal city of Kentucky, which took an undecided part during the war, some of its citizens siding with the North, others with the South. The city has no particularly interesting feature; its population is under 100,000.

From Louisville trains on the Memphis and Louisville railway run to Cave city in a little more than three hours. The line passes through some pretty mountain scenery on about the same scale

as that near the Trossachs, Scotland. The accommodation of the railroads south of the Ohio is less comfortable, and the passengers are of a rougher description, than those to the north of it. Negroes, too, on those lines are compelled to travel in the car next the engine, which is set apart for white smokers as well; the last car of the train is reserved for ladies, and is frequently empty. In the sleeping-cars on these lines, however, they draw a curtain across the middle of the passage, in order that ladies may have one half of the car to themselves—a consideration not accorded them on the north-eastern lines.

For the Mammoth Cave there are two stations, Cave city and Glasgow Junction. It is well for the traveller to know that the former is the more convenient of the two, as he will find it difficult to obtain any certain information on the point from his fellow passengers, and impossible to do so from the conductors of the trains, who, for reasons of their own, keep what they know about the merits of the two places to themselves. At Cave *city* (a place made up of the hotel, which is also the railway station, and a shed) refreshments, and lodging if necessary, as well as a conveyance to the cave itself nine miles distant, can certainly be obtained; at the latter this is somewhat more doubtful.

From Cave city to the Mammoth Cave a stage,

apparently destitute of springs and constructed in its owner's opinion to carry nine persons, runs daily over what can hardly be called a road. The constructors of this thoroughfare, after cutting down the trees, seem to have collected the largest stones they could find in the vicinity and placed them in the clearing. Certainly, to a person of delicate organization, this journey is excessively trying, though the scenery, to a certain extent, compensates for the discomfort. The way lies through a thickly-wooded undulating country, and occasionally beautiful views may be obtained through the trees of the distant landscape. This drive is especially beautiful late in the season, when the forest is one mass of brilliant autumn tints. The trees are bound together by creepers whose stems hang like serpents from bough to bough, making locomotion difficult any where off the road. Rattlesnakes, too, are more than usually abundant in this part of the State.

The stage stops at the Cave Hotel, a few hundred yards from the mouth of the cave itself. This hotel consists of a long one-storied wooden shed divided into compartments for bedrooms, and appears capable of accommodating about a hundred persons. Some little way before reaching it the stage passes a small house where lives a young man who acts as guide to the Indian cave, which was once used as an Indian burying-place, and still

contains Indian remains. Under nearly the whole of this district run caves of various dimensions; one was recently discovered full of the skeletons of Indians; this must have been their burying-place for ages. When we passed the guide was about to exhume a skeleton from this cave for an Englishman. We saw him again on our return and found that he had only obtained a skull and a few bones by his ghastly excursion.

The mouth of the cave is a short way from the house, at the foot of a small eminence on which the hotel is built. The appearance of the ground leads to the supposition that the earth at some remote period had fallen in, leaving a gentle slope to the entrance of the cave. There are two regular routes for visitors to the cave; one, the short or nine-mile, the other, the long or eighteen-mile route (or *rowt*, as it is pronounced in the dialect of the country). We chose the short route, which appeared to us to be about seven miles in length, though the guide insisted that it was nine. A current of cold air issues from the mouth in the summer, of warm air in the winter, as the temperature of the interior never varies. If a person makes a step from one position to another near the entrance on a hot day, he will experience an alteration of temperature of above thirty degrees. Some persons in an advanced stage of consumption, a few years ago, built themselves a small stone room

in the interior, and lived there during the winter in the hope of regaining health ; but without success for they all perished within a short period of quitting their subterranean habitation.

Parties are made up daily to be conducted by a negro guide through the cave by one or other of the routes. Special dresses are kept at the hotel for ladies, which are rather shorter than usual, and therefore better adapted for rough walking or climbing. At the entrance the guide furnishes each of the party with a small lamp for him to carry during the excursion. The guide himself carries several pieces of paper which he lights at various points to display the size of the chambers or depth of the abysses passed in the excursion.

The cave is far more remarkable for its size and extent than for any special feature. Walking through it becomes monotonous after the first half hour. The guide mentions the names of various points, but they resemble one another so nearly that this hardly tends to relieve the sameness of the excursion. We were not surprised at meeting a large party of ladies and gentlemen who had started early for the long route, but had given it up and turned back.

There are no particularly pretty stalactites; those that exist are of a dull grey colour, remarkable more for their size than for their beauty or brilliancy. The interior of this cave is dry except

where a spring issues from the rock, and the walking seems but little more rough than the road from Cave city to the hotel. The interior is generally from seven to ten feet high and about fifteen feet broad, but it occasionally expands into vast chambers, some of which are seventy feet broad and as many high. There are tremendous chasms, such as the Bottomless Pit, at various places. Where any of these occur in the line of march plank-bridges have been put across them. The Star Chamber is a fine hall, in whose lofty arched roof are pieces of gypsum that shine like stars. Here the guide collects the lamps of the party, and, retiring behind a fragment of rock, throws every thing into shade except the roof, which then appears exactly like the sky on a clear dark night. He soon, if playfully disposed, leaves the party in total darkness, and, passing through some side passage, approaches from the opposite direction with hideous noises, hoping to scare any weak-minded person who may happen to have put himself under his direction.

In the long route various lakes and rivers are seen, on some of which are boats. In the water are the fish without sight, but, curiously enough, they rise to the surface when a person approaches, and seem sensitive to the presence of light. There are said to be 200 miles of passages in the cave. It is unsafe to linger behind the party to examine

any object. A person once was left behind in this manner and was not missed for some time. His party searched unsuccessfully for him for awhile, and were then obliged to leave the cave for fear of the oil in their lamps becoming exhausted. As soon as they reached the outer air all the available guides returned in a body to look for him, but could not find him for forty-eight hours. In the meantime his hair had turned white, and he was found with the pupils of his eyes distended to an unnatural extent. His lamp had gone out a short time after he lost his party, and he remained expecting the most horrible of deaths—afraid to move, lest he should fall into one of the terrible abysses that had been pointed out to him on his way inward.

It is supposed that the Indians did not know of the existence of the larger cave, as the remains of only one have been found there, who probably discovered the entrance, went in, and was unable to retrace his steps. A wooden drinking-bowl was also discovered there. These are believed to be the only human remains of the time before it was known to white men that have been, or ever will be, seen in the place.

During the war of 1812 the cave was used as a mine for saltpetre, and the apparatus for obtaining and storing it still exists, but it was abandoned when the demand fell off at the close of the war.

CHAPTER X.

WEST OF CHICAGO.

IN leaving Chicago the traveller may be said to bid farewell to civilization, as this is the last city west of New York which has any pretensions to refinement or age.

He will probably take one of two routes, either by the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific railroad, which passes through the capital of the State of Iowa; or by the Chicago and North Western railroad, which runs a little to the north of the former one, and in a rather more direct line, as it appears on the maps, to Council Bluffs. Each of these lines, however, in its time-tables professes to be the "shortest, cheapest, and most reliable route," and "to carry the mails," but as a matter of fact the Chicago and North Western railroad trains accomplish the distance to Council Bluffs (488 miles) in two hours and a half less time than their rivals,

the fares being the same (about twenty-three dollars) by either route.

The scenery along either of these routes is very tame, as the lines traverse prairies now under cultivation, there being no hills or valleys, and only an occasional wood, to relieve the general monotonous level of the country. The Mississippi, which is crossed by these railroads (by the northern at Clinton, by the southern at Rock Island), is even at this enormous distance from its mouth navigable by large steamers and about a mile and a half in width. It is spanned by one of those wonderful trellis-like wooden bridges which vibrate sensibly as the train drags its slow length across them. The dull monotony of the general scenery is broken by the snake or zigzag fences which separate the vast fields of Indian corn or maize from each other. It is said that this corn grows so abundantly that before there was railroad communication with Chicago the farmers used it for fuel, as a means of getting rid of it, and because it was found cheaper to grow maize than bring timber from a distance. But even now one cannot cease to wonder whence the demand for so much of this particular corn can come. For miles and miles the railroads traverse fields extending on either side as far as the eye can reach, bearing maize only, wheat or any other grain being seldom seen.

The farm-houses are all built on the same model, consisting generally of two rooms on the ground-floor, which serve the purposes of kitchen, parlour, and bedroom, as occasion requires. In these Western farms we often hear of wealthy farmers, native-born Americans, who but a few years before borrowed money to buy the land on which they live, and with the proceeds of their first year's crop have been able to pay back both the interest and capital.

But it is far more common to find that the occupants of these singular houses are persevering Germans, who have pushed their way thus far westward, not content, like the Irish immigrants, to remain on the quays of New York and Boston, or in the other cities of the East. More persevering by nature, and more prepared to endure hardships, they have migrated into the heart of the prairies, far from the bounds of civilization, content to take up their abode as "squatters," and to wage war with nature. They do not require much animal food, but live almost entirely on hominy or mush and on salted pork. The stock and implements necessary for carrying on these farms are not numerous. The stock usually consists of pigs, one or two cows, poultry, and a horse or two. A plough and harrows, and a roller, are the larger implements of agriculture. We are speaking now of the small farmers, for the large farms are well

furnished with all the newest machinery of every description. The out-houses for the cattle are usually composed of logs covered over with earth and grass, which form an effectual shelter from the colds of winter; in fact in the far West human beings are content to live in such huts as these with no better accommodation than their cattle have, excepting a fire. To judge by appearances one would say that these squatters had not bettered their condition by emigrating from the Old World, but in truth most of them save money every year, and deposit it, not in banks, but in their own houses.

The buffets on these Western lines are inferior even to those in the East, and the prices of every thing increase as the traveller approaches the setting sun and follows "the course of Empire."

At length, twenty-two hours after he started from Chicago (provided the train has not run off the track—not an uncommon occurrence on those lines which connect Chicago with the Missouri), he will arrive at Council Bluffs, a city on the eastern side of the Missouri, at which the lines of railroad from the East converge. This *city* (as all American towns are called) is the terminus of the two railroads from Chicago and of the Hannibal and St. Joseph line, which, following the left bank of the Missouri river for a long distance, forms a direct communication with St. Louis. The city is situated

under some sandstone bluffs, or cliffs, as we should call them, and from them derives its name, as well as from its having been the place in days long gone by at which a council of white men and Indians was held. These bluffs are probably formed by sand from the wide and level plains which has been drifted into hillocks by the wind blowing almost constantly from the same quarter. It is a singular fact that, although Council Bluffs has the advantage of three lines of railroad and of sharing the Missouri river with its rival on the opposite side, Omaha has grown up since the Pacific railroad was begun, while the older town has continued almost stationary, as regards enterprise and development. It struck us forcibly that it is merely a freak of fortune which has thus caused Omaha to assume its present magnitude, and that the time must come when Council Bluffs will again take that position to which it is entitled by reason of its age and situation.

At present there is no direct railroad communication between the east and west banks of the river at this point, but the crossing from one terminus to the other has to be made in the omnibuses of a transfer company, and by means of a ferry. The whole distance from the termini of the railroads from the East to that of the Union Pacific is not more than a mile and a half, yet such are the roads that two hours are frequently

consumed in the transfer; for it often happens that the omnibus for the passengers gets stuck in the mud of the corduroy roads, and oftener that the baggage-waggon upsets in the quicksands on the banks of the river. This delay is undoubtedly, on some occasions, the result of a secret arrangement between the drivers and the hotel keepers of Omaha to detain the passengers, who by this means (as was our own case) are compelled to pass the remainder of the day at Omaha, since there is on the Pacific railroad only one express train daily, and that starts early in the morning.

The most vexatious part of being compelled against one's will to spend many precious hours in such a city is that there is nothing really worth seeing. Like nearly all American cities, Omaha is laid out in squares, having certain parallel streets which run north and south cut by others which run east and west at right angles. In this way the ground is broken up into squares, not like those in European towns, where plots of land are faced by houses on four sides, but rather the squares, thus formed by the streets, are themselves built on, and the whole plan would on paper be represented by a chess-board on which a bishop's move is impossible.

There is scarcely a stone building in the whole city, but all are of wood. Nearly every house appears to be either a boarding-house, or to be

dignified with the name of a hotel, and one might almost say without great exaggeration that the remaining houses are bar-rooms. The principal public office is the Land Office of the Government, the walls of which are hung with plans of such of the surrounding districts, as are suitable for settlements, and they are made to look very nice on paper. The accommodation at the hotels is very expensive, and very poor, as the bed-rooms are nearly all divided into compartments by thin partitions, which give them somewhat of the appearance of stalls in a stable. And moreover the traveller, who for the first time has left the comforts of civilization behind him, feels a sort of apprehension as to the character of the other occupants of the room, since there are no locks or bolts on the slightly-made doors to prevent intrusion. But he will find some small consolation in the company of a bowie-knife or revolver, which every white man in such wild and lawless regions unfailingly wears in his belt by day and puts under his pillow at night.

The climate of Omaha is peculiarly healthful; the city is at an elevation of 967 feet above the sea. It is a wonder of growth. In 1866 it had a population of only 3000 people; its inhabitants now number 25,000 or 30,000. The morality of this city is said not to be of a very high order; but no city of its size, with a population so recently

drawn from the dregs of Eastern cities, can boast much in this respect.

On leaving Omaha the traveller commences his journey on the Union Pacific railroad, which has acquired already a world-wide celebrity, from the difficulties surmounted and from the rapidity with which it was constructed. He now enters on a journey of 500 miles across a prairie apparently level as a billiard-table and almost as uncultivated as the great Sahara, with the exception of the few straggling canvass tents and mud huts which cluster around the stations on the line of the railroad. These squatter-settlements were probably selected originally on account of their vicinity to a spring or stream of good water. Between Omaha and Cheyenne none of these mushroom towns have more than twenty inhabitants, and are all alike in their general features. There is probably a bar-room to every five men in a settlement, at which the principal liquor sold is rye or maize whiskey, a vile headache-producing concoction, consumed in such quantities by the few inhabitants of these districts that the proprietors of the bar-rooms often realize a fortune in four or five years.

Between Omaha and Cheyenne (a distance of 500 miles) the prairie is, as we said before, scarcely broken in its monotonous level, except by water-courses and an occasional bluff. But as the train hurries onward the startled prairie-dogs rush out of

their holes and bark loudly as they watch what is now not an unaccustomed sight to them. These pretty little animals are somewhat like large English rats, and are easily domesticated. Of their habits little is known, except that they are said to share their homes with owls and rattlesnakes—an incongruous and scarcely a happy family, one would suppose. Besides these prairie-dogs, an occasional cinnamon bear is seen in the distance against the sky; herds of antelopes dare to approach the iron road, and are a favourite mark for the revolvers of the passengers, for then it is, and on such occasions only, that one gets ocular proof of the fact that every one travels armed. The passing troops of mounted Indians are suffered to go unmolested; the wilder tribes seldom approach very near the line itself, their favourite trick being to pull up the rails, and then to retire behind a bluff and watch for the upsetting of the train; the engine of which, it is said, they regard as a messenger from the Big Father, the Great Spirit of their forefathers, and the telegraph wires and posts they have much veneration for, as "great medicines."

And here it will not be out of place to give a brief description of the general features of the race of men who once owned all the vast continent.

The descriptions usually given of them (especially

Fenimore Cooper's highly-coloured accounts of the red men of the forest) credit them with more nobility and force of character than those who have dwelt near them and among them for many years are prepared to admit.

The customs of the aboriginal inhabitants of the New World bear some resemblance to those of the Old. In the practice of placing their altars on twelve stones at their feasts and fasts, they are not unlike the Jews. Like the Scythians of the time of Herodotus, they scalp their foes and carry the scalps with them as trophies, and, like the Scythians and Finns, they use the vapour-bath.

Before they came into contact with the white men they were highly chaste and moral. Polygamy was sanctioned, and divorce was common among them, yet instances of infidelity were unknown.

But since white colonists set foot in the New World the natives of the soil have been doomed. The use of fire-arms and the consequent reckless destruction of game, and the still more potent agency of "fire-water," have done their work in demoralizing what may have been once a fine, noble, and generous race of men.

The red man, whose hunting-grounds were once on the Alleghanies, and on the Hudson, has gradually retreated before the approach of the "pale-face," until he now claims as his own only the prairies of Wyoming and Colorado, and a few

"reservations" assigned to him in the more eastern and southern territories. The wild beast, the sport of the white man, is the red man's food. The latter cannot understand the motives which induce a man to kill the buffalo and leave its carcass a prey to the birds of the air and the wolves of the plains, although he might forgive one who did so if driven by the promptings of hunger. The animosity of the Indians towards the white race is in part the result of this love of destruction, and in part the result of the thirst for gain which tempts the white man so far into the West, beyond the *ultima Thule* of civilization, among the homes and haunts of the red men. The Indian cannot regard the settler in any other light than that of an intruder or usurper. The settler, on the other hand, considers the Indian a hindrance to his money-seeking appetite and an obstacle to the advance of civilization. In this way there has sprung up a war between the two races which can only result, sooner or later, in the extermination of the less powerful—the aboriginal occupant of the soil.

The red man of the forest, as he commonly appears to any one passing through the western regions of the United States to California, is about five feet six inches in height, his complexion a dark cinnamon or coffee colour, with a flattened nose and dark oval eyes looking out towards the temples. His hair is of a glossy black colour,

and usually hangs down the back, reaching to the waist. His beard is very thin, and the traces of it, when it appears, are eradicated. His cheek-bones are very prominent, but his forehead is more lofty than is commonly supposed. His dress is usually a buffalo-skin wound round the legs, and occasionally a linen or coarse cloth garment on the shoulders. When on the war-path he covers his cheeks and forehead with daubs of red paint, and places feathers in his hair.

The squaw at a distance of ten yards is not easily distinguishable from her husband, as she too wears her hair down her back and dresses in the same style; but she may be distinguished by other means, for the "noble red man" has no idea of a woman possessing any rights. To him labour is menial and dishonourable. War and the chase are his sphere and pastime, therefore the woman is a beast of burden. She carries her husband's arms, his children, and even the scalps of his enemies. He will not dig, but to beg he is not ashamed when he finds himself in the settlements of the white man.

There are many distinct races of Indians (sprung originally from the same parent stock), and each race has a peculiar symbol. The most powerful of the remaining tribes are the Sioux, the Cheyennes, and the Arapahoes, and the wounds inflicted by these are characteristic of the tribe. The symbol

of the Cheyennes is a cut arm; that is, the arm of the victim would be hacked to the bone. The Arapahoes are "the smeller tribe" and slit up the noses, while the Sioux cut the throats of their fallen enemies. The Indians of Canada are always pointed to by the philanthropists of Boston as an instance of the good results of kind treatment. Those whom the first settlers found were undoubtedly a fine and noble race of men, but by contact with the white man they have degenerated, and have adopted all the vices of the latter without acquiring any of his virtues. In Canada it has been part of the policy of the Hudson's Bay Company to encourage the Indians—of whom they purchased furs and skins—and to forbid under heavy penalties the sale of "fire-water" to them by white men. And, of course, so long as a powerful company had a monopoly in settling and hunting over a district larger by far than European Russia, and so long as it was found that Indians served the purposes of the company as hunters, they were unlikely to be molested. So soon, however, as civilization advances into the north-west and they come into contact with the white man, the aboriginal inhabitants of Canada will melt away like snow before the sun.

There are two distinct views on the Indian question taken in the United States. Those who view it from a distance look on the red men as an

ill-treated race, who should be petted by the white men who have usurped their inheritance. They regard the aboriginal inhabitant as "a man and a brother," who is to be treated as on an equal footing with themselves and as competent to make treaties and declare war as one of a rival nation, rather than as a member of an insignificant tribe. This view of the question has been taken by the United States' Government in its dealings with the Indians, and the result of this policy has been the slow but gradual extermination of the race, the oft-repeated raids of the Indians on the settlers, and the frequent massacres on either side; for as no large force has ever been sent against the red men, they have never realized the power of the white men's Government and their own inability to drive out the usurpers from their country. Such as live near the Indians, and have mourned the loss of children and relatives, are not disposed to treat the red men otherwise than as beasts of the forest. The only hope for the few remaining aboriginal inhabitants is in their quietly removing to the "reservations" (which lie principally in New Mexico) and becoming tillers of the soil.

The result of the recent mission of the Quakers has not been altogether satisfactory. The Indians must be ruled with a firm hand, for persuasion and arguments are wasted on them. When treated as children they are submissive, and obey; but when treated as the equals of the white man they rebel

against him, and, in the hope of exterminating the intruder, commit those frequent and horrible massacres with which the border settlers are too well acquainted.

But to return. At regular intervals along the line the train is stopped while the engine takes in a supply of water and wood, the former raised into large wooden reservoirs by means of windmills, the latter brought from a distance wherever coal is not procurable.

On reaching Cheyenne the traveller, perhaps to his surprise (as a few years ago the name belonged not to a city with some pretensions to civilization, but to one of the wildest of the wild tribes of Indians who still roam about in these plains), finds churches, schools, hotels, and bar-rooms. Theatres have not as yet been erected in this city, but two years ago the resort of gamblers and cut-throats, who perpetrated some outrage or other every day. In winter, owing to the unprotected situation of the city on the plains, the inhabitants are exposed to every wind that blows. There are no trees, no shrubberies, and the Sierra Madre rises so gradually as practically to afford no shelter whatever even from the westerly winds.

It is here that the train is left by the traveller who intends to visit Denver city, reached from the Pacific railroad by a stage-coach drive of twenty-four hours. These coaches would astonish Euro-

peans as much by the solidity of their build and the enormous strength of their springs as by the jolting which the unfortunate occupants have to undergo. The drivers of all these Western stages are far-famed for their recklessness and skill. Although their average speed seldom exceeds six miles an hour, yet when we consider the nature of the ground to be traversed there is no reason for complaint on this score. Macadamized roads are unknown even in the older States, where the thoroughfares are in summer many inches deep in dust, and in winter impassable on account of the mud, if not covered with snow. But as these Western roads cross streams of water which art has never bridged over, and traverse bogs which science has never drained, these deficiencies are remedied by merely throwing into the streams large rocks, and into the bogs faggots of brushwood, thus forming what are well known as "corduroy roads," from the unevenness of their surface. The fame of the Yankee for his skill as a Jehu is not confined to his country, for in Australia he is still sought after as a driver who is most likely to combine a certain amount of safety with the greatest possible speed in taking adventurers up to the gold mines from the coast.

The city of Denver lies nestling at the foot of the Rocky Mountains. It has a population of about 15,000 people, and is laid out in squares, has many hotels, banks, theatres, churches, restaurants in-

numerable, and countless bar-rooms, and the United States' Land Office. So fast do buildings spring up in these mushroom towns of the West that, with Mark Tapley, we can only suppose that, the soil being so fruitful, buildings grow spontaneously. Of society it has none of the kind to which we are accustomed, but yet the roughness of its youth has worn off, and life is comparatively safe.

The adjacent mining settlement of George Town in the gorges of the Rocky Mountains is not so refined or civilized as its neighbour. It seems as if civilization tended to disappear as we approach the setting sun.

As we leave Cheyenne we ascend gradually the eastern slope of the Sierra Madre, by a gradient of one in seventy. The steepest gradient on the Union Pacific railroad is only about one in 107, so that the engineering difficulties to be surmounted were few, but we must remember that Omaha, the eastern terminus of the line, is 967 feet above sea-level, and that there is a gradual but imperceptible ascent even to Cheyenne.

Those who expect to find high peaks and snow-capped summits towering above them as they proceed along the railroad across the mountains will be disappointed (the peaks are at least seventy miles to the south), nor is the scenery even wild as yet, although somewhat picturesque. The sandstone

bluffs of brilliant colour have weird and fantastic shapes, the effect of which is heightened as the sunlight brings out some parts and throws others into the shade. At Sherman the highest point on the line is reached at 8700 feet above the sea. A few miles west of Sherman the line crosses Dale Creek on one of those wooden bridges which quiver and vibrate as the train passes, but are nevertheless said to be very strong. This bridge is about 660 feet long and 125 high, and is light and airy in appearance. The descent is made very rapidly along this portion of the line, 1000 feet in twenty miles. Beyond Laramie, where passengers stop for refreshments, is Carbon; a station near which the coal was first discovered which supplies the engines along the Pacific railroads. Thence begins the descent of the western slope of the water-shed of the American continent into the great Salt Basin—a desert as unproductive as the great Sahara, but unlike the great Sahara in that its winters are said to end in July, to begin in August. The summer is obviously not long enough to ripen corn, nor is the soil rich enough to yield any life-supporting fruits.

The country lies too high for irrigation. Were there any mountain valleys whose waters might be poured over the soil, the desert would soon be fertile, supposing that the climate were agreeable. This artificial fertility we see when we get down into the

valley among the Mormon settlements and note how a desert has been reclaimed and transformed into a land flowing with milk and honey.

At a small wayside station called Percy, whose inhabitants number some eight or ten *employés* of the railroad company, together with one or two old hunters who earn a precarious subsistence by the spoils of the chase, we alighted from the train for the sake of some elk shooting. This station is about twenty-five miles north of Elk Mountain, a wooded hill called a mountain out of courtesy. It is situated in the heart of the desolate barren region of the Salt Basin, and even in September the thermometer falls to zero.

Of course there was a bar for the sale of whiskey in a tent—the only habitation in these parts, except the house of the station master. This was at the time of our visit kept by a young Englishman whose history illustrates the vicissitudes of fortune.

The son of a respectable homœopathic doctor in Liverpool, he was sent by his father to a school at Dublin. Wearied, however, with the confinement, and having no love for books, he ran away from school and returned home, having made up his mind to go to sea. His father therefore sent him on board a training ship in the Mersey, from which he was in a short time expelled. He afterwards worked his passage across the Atlantic to the States, and in a year or two saved sufficient money

to buy a share in a coasting vessel, of which he first became master, then sole owner. A severe illness overtook him, and he was now compelled to pay 150*l.* a year to a skipper to sail his vessel; but his illness continued, the insurance was left unpaid, and, last of all, the vessel was wrecked. Finding himself, on his recovery, cast on the world once more a beggar, he started for the West at the time of the cutting of the Pacific railroad, and settled down or squatted at the place since called Percy, where he earns a living by trapping in winter, by tending his bar in summer. Such is briefly the eventful history of one of these Westerners, and it is doubtless one of many instances, could we but read the tale which their care-worn faces tell.

In all large-game shooting the great difficulty is to find your game. The elk are not so numerous as they once were, and in warm weather keep high up on the mountains and seldom descend into the plains; but when once within range of the rifle they fall an easy prey to the marksman, being as large as an ox, weighing from four to six hundred pounds, and when once frightened they know not which way to run.

The mountain sheep, whose flesh is the most delicate of all wild game, is seldom met with, for it lives on the highest crags and is gifted by nature with short and strong horns, in order, it is said, to save itself in case of a fall by alighting on its head.

Stories are told by hunters of some of these sheep which have been known to be uninjured after a perpendicular fall of thirty yards—but for this statement we cannot vouch.

The antelopes are very numerous, and the most easily got at by the sportsman; but their sight is very keen, and on these plains there are no bushes or hills to screen the approach of the hunter, who avails himself of the shelter afforded by the courses of dried-up mountain torrents, or comes suddenly down upon a herd from the brow of a hill, and with his Winchester rifle, which discharges sixteen rounds in half a minute, makes it almost impossible for the animal to escape unhurt under such a shower of bullets.

The great difficulty which the sportsman has to contend with in these regions is the want of good water, for the soil is highly impregnated with alkalies, which in dry weather give the ground a snow-white appearance. But if wise he will carry with him a flask of neat whiskey, which, although undiluted, does not in this salubrious atmosphere and clear dry air appear to have any injurious effect.

After spending several days in the chase we resumed our journey westward on the railroad, still in the heart of the barren desert, in whose sandy alkaline soil only the sage-brush (*artemisia tridentata*) takes root.

On the morning of the day after we left Percy, we entered Echo Cañon (pronounced *Canyon*, a name given to the mountain valleys of the Western States). The soil is here a dull red sandstone, and the fantastic castle-like peaks tower far above the heads of the passengers as the train hurries down the western slope of the Rocky Mountains.

This valley is famous in history as the spot which Brigham Young selected as the place of resistance to "Buchanan's expedition" (as the expedition sent by the President of that name and the Government at Washington in 1857 to annihilate Mormonism was called). The Mormon generals were ordered to occupy the heights and to roll down the crags on the invading army as it passed beneath. But a compromise was brought about without a collision. This same valley was also the scene of what is known in the chronicles of the railroad as "Paddy's ride." While the line was in course of construction three men, an Irishman and two Germans, were taking some sleepers on a truck from the higher to the lower end of the valley, a distance of forty miles, down a steep incline. They started the truck, but were unable to stop it at the required place, and, hurried on by its own impetus, it gradually increased its speed, the men being engaged all the time in throwing off the timber. At length, unable to check it in its headlong course, they jumped off, and, strange to say, were

all uninjured, while the truck, half a mile further on, was dashed into a thousand pieces.

The old stage route to Salt Lake city passes down this valley by the side of the railroad, and the carcasses and skeletons of horses and oxen lying in every direction give evidence of the hardships which the emigrants to the Land of Promise—Salt Lake city—and to California, must have endured in by-gone days. At the foot of this Cañon is Echo "city," which is made up of three or four tents or booths, one of which is an exchange or bank, another a store where any thing and every thing can be obtained, and a third a gambling and bar-room. We noticed several words curiously spelt on the sign-boards over these booths, and even at the railroad stations, such as "restuarants," "grocerys," "dineing-rooms." The sign-painters in these wild districts are evidently not, as they ought to be, "men of letters." The cold in this valley is very intense, for the mountain walls on either side rise so abruptly from their base that the rays of the sun are hardly able to penetrate into it. Weber Cañon, which we enter soon after this, is said to have the lowest mean annual temperature in the United States; and certainly the mountain-torrent fed by the melting snows even in August was icy-cold, and at ten a.m. the thermometer stood only three degrees above freezing point. The scenery in this cañon is on a smaller scale, but

yet more wild and grand than that through which we had just before passed. The sides of the mountains appear on the point of overwhelming the train, and the echoes are almost deafening.

In this valley we pass two parallel ridges of grey granite, known as the "Devil's Slide," running up the side of the mountain about a yard apart, the interval being filled up with beautiful variegated wild-flowers. These ridges are about 150 yards long, rise out of the trap-rock of the mountains, and are a curious *lusus naturæ*.

We are now among the Mormon settlements of Utah. Life among the saints does not differ at first sight materially from that in the outer world. Peace and plenty reign every where. The fields are better cultivated than any we had seen after leaving Pennsylvania. The women standing at the doors of their adobe-built cottages, with children either in their arms or playing around, present a picture of rural happiness. It is probable that the most pleasing charm of Mormon life, as we now look on it for the first time, is derived from the contrast between the cultivated fields and the evidences of civilization, and the uncultivated and wild prairies and the desert through which we have but just travelled. This impression was derived from only a passing glance, but at the head-quarters of Mormonism we had some opportunities of inquiring into the working of the institution.

The coach which takes passengers from Utah railroad station to the city of the saints could not have been built with a view to the comfort of its occupants. It has seats for nine persons inside and four or five on the roof. To provide room for the nine persons inside, a cross-seat is placed between the two doors, so that those who are unfortunate enough to sit on it have the knees of three passengers sticking into their backs, and the legs of three others in front of them. This has to be endured for five hours, so that one is hardly inclined to say, "*Medio tutissimus ibis*," and the road to be travelled is unique in its unevenness.

The wheels on one side are sometimes plunged into a rut a foot deep, while those on the other are passing over a heap of stones at least as high. The four horses are kept at a fast trot or gallop at the same time, so that the amount of jolting and shaking which the passenger has to undergo may be better imagined than described. On leaving Salt Lake city we travelled over this rough road at night. The darkness seemed to aggravate our ills; there was no opportunity to look ahead and prepare for the worst. For five hours we had to submit to the torture of an inside seat in the coach. At one moment our heads would come into violent collision with the roof; at another we found ourselves seated with some violence in the lap of

our opposite neighbour; at another we almost fell out of the window as the coach gave a lurch over to our side—so that, as may well be supposed, we courted sweet sleep in vain.



CHAPTER XI.

SPIRITUAL COMMUNITIES.

ONE of the most important phases of society in the United States is that of their religious communities. The free soil of the New World is favourable to the growth of morbid forms of religion, and its Government does not as yet look with a jealous eye on such corporations. The mortmain laws of England do not obtain in any of the States except Pennsylvania; no restrictions are imposed on the power of a person to give his property as he pleases. The best known of the many socialisms of the New World are those of the Shakers and Free Lovers. The Mormons are not Communists, but, as believers in Spiritualism and revelation through mediums, they have a common bond with the Shakers and Free Lovers.

It is said that there are no less than six million Spiritualists in the United States. This number includes the communities which we have mentioned

and a large number of individual members of the Swedenborgian and other religious beliefs.

The Shakers profess to have maintained from their first organization direct communication with the spirit-world. In 1830 they had a revelation from the spirits, who told them of an approaching crisis in the history of their community, when the gifts of the spirit, with which they only had been hitherto favoured, were to be poured out on the people of the "world," and to leaven the whole earth. From this dates the Spiritualism which we find in every large city of the States revealing the mysteries of the unseen world by the agency of fleshly mediums.

The doctrine of "Free Love" is a direct consequence of spiritual belief. The people of Oneida Creek (who style themselves "Perfectionists," but are commonly known as "Free Lovers"), assert that there are two forms of marriage, that it is possible for two people to be married only in the body (without any union of their better parts—their souls), and that this is the ordinary form of marriage, as we find it in the world. The "Free Lovers," then, have abolished the marriage ceremony altogether, and endeavour to unite themselves to each other by closer ties, each to find a kindred spirit—an "affinity." A Perfectionist is by no means sure when he finds his "affinity" that it is impossible afterwards to meet with a still nearer

affinity. Hence arises their promiscuous form of marriage, and out of this grew the Communism of Oneida Creek.

The system of the Free Lovers is similar to that of the Shakers, so far as regards community of goods, but while the Shakers rigorously keep their vows of celibacy, the Free Lovers maintain community of wives.

The Mormons are not Communists in any respect. The connexion of Church and State is, from motives of policy, upheld among them; but, as among the Shakers and Free Lovers, every member supports the religion of the community. Each individual Mormon is allowed to acquire property for himself, and to have as many wives as he can maintain. We propose then briefly to describe the homes and peculiar tenets of the Shakers and Mormons, and to relate what we ourselves saw and heard during our visits to these societies.

About twenty-five miles S.E. of Albany, and 150 from the city of New York, is the summer resort of Lebanon Springs. This inland watering-place is situated in the midst of very fine scenery, and surrounded on all sides with high hills whose slopes are studded with orchards and highly cultivated farms. On one side of these hills is the Shaker village of New Lebanon, commanding an extensive view over the adjacent country. From Canaan, the nearest railroad depôt, we were driven

over the roughest of roads in a primitive stage-waggon drawn by four horses, and on our arrival at New Lebanon were received by one of the elders, Mr. Frederick W. Evans, an Englishman by birth, and for two days we availed ourselves of the proffered hospitality of the community. The furniture of the bedroom assigned to us was very scanty, consisting of a bed, a bucket of water, a table, and two chairs, our bed being made each morning at the early hour of five by one of the elders. The usual meal hours for the community are breakfast at six a.m., dinner at noon, and supper at six p.m. The tables did not groan under any luxuries, but at the same time the food was very wholesome and simple. All the members of the community rise at 4.30 a.m. in the summer, and perform their matutinal ablutions at the pumps; at ten p.m. they retire to rest. During the day, from seven in the morning until six at night, all (both men and women) are engaged in the fields and workshops. Their farm is so exquisitely neat and well cultivated that there is something abnormal in its appearance, for America still wears to an English eye the aspect of colonial roughness. The extent of their farm is about 6000 acres, of which sixty are garden land. Their personal property consists of about two millions and a quarter dollars in the Government securities. The products of their dairy and lands are much sought after and prized by "the

world" on account of their excellence. Being their guests during a Sunday, we were allowed as a favour to be present at a private meeting of the community for worship. The room in which it was held on this occasion—for in summer they adjourn to their church, which is open to visitors on payment—is about twenty-five feet long and fifteen wide, and has a door at either end, by one of which the sisters, forty in number, entered and arranged themselves in rows, five deep; through the other an equal number of brothers appeared. The proceedings commenced with a hymn, in which all joined; and on our remarking at the close of the meeting that the tunes were very unearthly, we were informed that the words and tunes of their hymns were revealed to them in visions. We unfortunately did not note down the words of the hymns used on the occasion of our visit, but the spirits have no large share of poetical talent, if we may judge from the following verse, which was sung at a meeting of Spiritualists, and was dictated by the spirits:—

SONG OF THE ANGELS.

(*To those who are bound heavenward.*)

"The fare is cheap, and food is plain,
For you can eat as you ride along,
For there is no grease to soil your clothes,
No bones to pick, or scales of fish to interfere."

After the hymn was ended the elder brother

addressed the congregation on the "Power of God," and was followed in a similar, though very feeble, strain by the elder sister. Next came another hymn, and then a dance. After this two younger sisters addressed the meeting, and forthwith all the congregation, men and women, promenaded by threes round and round the room with a jaunty step, clapping their hands and singing loudly in slow time all the while. Next came another hymn, and then all the congregation gyrated violently round each other, like dancing dervishes, stopping now and then to shuffle and stamp on the floor and to invoke the spirit. Then followed some remarks from several members, one of whom concluded with the words, "Let us love one another," whereupon the sisters fell to kissing, and the brothers to embracing each other. Lastly, all marched round the room in double-quick time, clapping their hands, while the choir stood in the midst singing and shouting loudly. We should add that the service lasted rather more than an hour, and that the exercise is so violent that one by one, although the weather was cold, the brethren took off their blue serge coats and hung them on pegs provided for the purpose, and went on dancing in their shirt-sleeves.

These meetings take place thrice on the Sabbath and occasionally during the week. On our inquiring what the *rationale* of the shaking is, they told us that

they shake because of their indignation against sin in themselves, and that they sing, shout, and leap for joy at the near prospect of salvation.

Before leaving the community we found that we had to pay for our board and lodging, "for," say they, "we make a charge to all those who do not come for the sake of religious information." We were previously under the impression that during our sojourn among them we had gained a vast amount of information on the forms of their religious worship and their peculiar doctrines, and we were the more astonished at their demand for payment, because they had often told us during our visit that they preached and lived the true apostolic life of the disciples, and took in all who being hungry and thirsty came to them. They also affirmed that they are laying up as much money as possible, because, according to prophecy, in a few years they expect to receive great additions to their numbers from the "world."

In the early part of the eighteenth century some French prophets or Spiritualists, driven by persecution from their own country, migrated to England. They gave warning of the near approach of the kingdom of heaven, and declared that all existing religions were false. Soon after their arrival they imbued with their views some Quakers, who formed themselves into a "Society of Believers." This society practised no forms and adopted no

creeds as rules of faith or worship, but believed in Divine revelations as given by the spirit. About 1765 they were joined by Ann Lee, the wife of a Manchester blacksmith, who, after nine years of persecution in England, embarked with her followers, ten in number, for America, and settled in the woods at no great distance from New Lebanon. To her and her sect many neighbouring farmers resorted, influenced by the revival; and, as they joined the community, threw all their property into the common fund. This formed the nucleus of their present possessions, and hence the increase in their numbers from ten to 2500, from one community to eighteen. "Mother Ann," as she is called by her followers, died in 1784, and by them is considered the second saviour of the world, for they say that the Christ-spirit made its first appearance in Jesus, who was the first Saviour of men, and its second in "Mother Ann," who is the saviour of women, and thus they interpret literally "the marriage of the Lamb."

Hence the Shakers are neither Trinitarians nor Unitarians, but "Dualitarians," believing that God is male and female, and they quote in confirmation of their view Gen. i. 27. Therefore in this community "women's rights" are fully recognized, by giving them a mother deity to protect them; so that the women, the sisters, take part in the service of worship.

The Shakers' Church is based upon the principles of Revelation, Spiritualism, Celibacy, Oral Confession, Community, Non-resistance, and Miracles.

In regard to Spiritualism, they affirm that the spirit reveals itself to them, and that the Spiritualism of the "outer world" is of a lower order, which has gone out from them and will return to them after it has leavened the whole earth. This life ended, they assert that their spirits will be "kings and priests" to the spirits of the "world," and that the future state is similar to that in which they are now, asserting that earth becomes heaven, if heavenly deeds are done therein.

Their system of spiritual theology, they say, is not confined to this earth, but is equally applicable to the inhabitants of all the material worlds within the universe of nature, whether fallen or unfallen.

As to celibacy, the Shakers assert that, at the present rate of increase, the earth will in time be over-populated; and hence they put into practical operation the Malthusian doctrine, with a certain religous element. They affirm it is impossible that men and women can be at once true followers of God and maintain a fleshly relation as man and wife, and they consider that relationship to be inconsistent with a community of goods such as the first disciples upheld. The Shakers, however, do not exclude from their society those who are married, but receive them, provided they live as if they

had not been married, and they misquote Scripture in support of their premises. In respect of community of goods, they claim that they are carrying into practice the doctrine of the "Pentecostal" Church. All the full members of the society are required to throw all their property into one common fund, although in the lower grades of membership they are allowed to dispose of it as they think right.

As to their doctrine of non-resistance, in the late civil war their property narrowly escaped confiscation, and it was exempted only by their showing what they had previously done for the country. Their influence has been materially felt, according to their own accounts, throughout the length and breadth of the land. The overthrow of the United States' Bank, the abolition of imprisonment for debt and slavery, are among the principal advances in civilization claimed on their behalf. The question of "women's rights" which is now being agitated, they assert to have emanated from them; in short, republicanism, in civil and religious government, is said to be the fufilment of the "Flying-eagle Epoch."

As the Shakers and Free Lovers have settled in a district of country abounding in fine scenery, so the Mormons have fixed their home in a spot which they speak of as flowing with milk and honey, and founded their city in the midst of what is now an

earthly paradise. Built on a gentle slope, behind it rise in semicircular form the Wasatch Mountains, whose summits—14,000 feet above the sea—are clad in perpetual snow. Before it stretches out the far-famed great Salt Lake, eighty miles in length and forty in width, out of which rise two mountainous and picturesque islands, on whose pastures the flocks and herds of the Church feed. The land around the city is still an uncultivated desert. The soil is very strongly impregnated with alkalies, and is quite unfruitful unless it can be artificially irrigated. This the Mormons have accomplished at a great outlay of labour and money, and hence the fertility of the fields. But where the land is so high as to be above the level of the mountain cañons, whence the streams are drawn down to the plains, the soil can never be brought under cultivation. Proselytizers of the Mormons who travel in Europe always represent their territory to be a land flowing with milk and honey, but seldom appeal to the sensuality of their audiences by urging the claims of polygamy.

Like almost all the modern cities of America, the streets are at right angles, about 150 feet in width, and flanked on either side by a row of trees and watered by a running stream brought down from the mountain cañons. In this way the city is laid out in "squares" ten acres in extent. These ten acres are again subdivided into plots of an acre and

a quarter, in the centre of each of which stands the house, built of "adobe" (i. e. clay baked in the sun) and surrounded by shrubberies and fruit-trees, the shaded walk from the gateway to the porch being bordered with flowers. The central "block" is encircled by a lofty wall, within which are the tabernacle and the foundations of the temple, the plan of which was revealed to "President" Young in a vision. The tabernacle is a large building much resembling a huge mushroom, capable of seating seven thousand persons. The gallery is as yet unfinished, but when completed will accommodate about 2500 more.

The main street of the city has some very fine stores, many of which are kept by "Gentiles," but of course the majority of them are owned by the "saints." Besides those which are "run" by private enterprise, we are met here and there by buildings occupied by "Zion's Co-operative Mercantile Institution," which has a history of its own.

Brigham Young, finding that the Gentile merchants, either by their greater activity or shrewdness, were gradually monopolizing all the business of the city, forbade, under pain of excommunication, all Mormons to have any dealings with the Gentiles; and to further his object established co-operative stores, in which every member of the Church was encouraged to take shares—in which the Church, in the person of Brigham Young, was not the smallest

shareholder. Over each of these stores we noticed the sign, elaborately painted in blue and gold characters—

"HOLINESS UNTO THE LORD.



ZION'S CO-OPERATIVE MERCANTILE INSTITUTION."

But, in spite of threats and prohibitions, the Gentiles still prosper, and the poorer Mormons cannot see the force of the logic which urges them to buy for a shilling what they can get elsewhere for sixpence.

Some of the advertisements of the merchants in these Western cities are peculiar and serve to illustrate how any thing and every thing may be bought in their stores. The two following may be taken as average specimens :—

ICE-CREAM SALOON.

TOMMY

Takes this method of informing his friends and the public in general that he is running J. R. Clawson's Saloon, where may be found Ice-cream, Candies, Cakes, Cigars, and Fountain Soda-water.

TOMMY IS READY TO WAIT ON HIS FRIENDS.

JOE SIMMONS, Proprietor of the Revere House Saloon, seems determined to please every body. He has just

received an importation of Tennent's XXX Porter, Tennent's Pale Ale, Bridge's London Porter, Hibburt's Pale Ale, Brewer & Bemas' celebrated Ale and Porter, in addition to Lager Beer, Oysters, Calves' Tongues, Pigs' Feet, Cigars, &c. Serves Lunch at all hours.

The theatre is a plain brick building, capable of seating 3000 persons. Like all American theatres, it has only two or three boxes; the seats in the parquet or pit being exclusively occupied by Mormons, while those in the dress-circle only are open to the Gentiles. Brigham Young's family seat is capable of holding about thirty persons, and is usually filled to overflowing by the members of his numerous household. He himself, as proprietor of the theatre, sits, not with his family, but in the centre of the parquet with his hat on. Being a spiritualist he does not believe in ghosts, and has been known to leave the theatre before the commencement of the ghost scene in *Hamlet*. The principal buildings besides this are the City Hall and the Endowment House, in which oaths are administered to new members and the "sealing ceremony" performed.

"Brigham's Block" occupies two squares in the northern part of the city, and is surrounded by a high wall, to prevent the public gaze and exclude the vulgar from his domain. Within this enclosure are his harems, the tithing-house, cattle sheds, and model spinning and corn mills. Over the main

entrance is a huge bird carved in stone, said to represent an eagle, the symbol of Mormon watchfulness, as the beehive is of Mormon industry.

The walls of Brigham Young's reception-room are hung with engravings and daubs of distinguished saints, and with subjects of national interest. Behind a partition which runs through the room are iron safes and desks, at which the affairs of Church and State are transacted.

His wives live in separate apartments in the "Bee House"—a large two-storied building—and have a commissary who attends to the wants of all alike. The tithing-house is used for storing up the tithes of the produce of all the Mormon community.

The city is divided into wards, over each of which presides a bishop, whose duty it is to keep his eye on waverers and to assist the poor, whether Mormon or Gentile.

Another duty of the bishops is to collect the tithes. Brigham Young found it necessary to have a "revelation" to support his financial policy. The revelation on this subject is contained in the book of the "Doctrine and Covenants:"—

"1. Verily, thus saith the Lord, I require all their surplus property to be put into the hands of the bishop of my Church of Zion, for the building of mine house, and for the laying the foundation of Zion and for the priesthood, and for the debts of the presidency of my

Church; and this shall be the beginning of the tithing of my people; and after that, those who have thus been tithed shall pay one-tenth of all their interest annually, and this shall be a standing law unto them for ever for my holy priesthood, saith the Lord.

"2. Verily I say unto you, it shall come to pass that all those who gather unto the land of Zion shall be tithed of their surplus properties, and shall observe this law, or they shall not be found worthy to abide among you. And I say unto you, if my people observe not this law to keep it holy, and by this law sanctify the land of Zion unto me, that my statutes and my judgments may be kept thereon, that it may be most holy; behold, verily I say unto you, it shall not be a land of Zion unto you; and this shall be an ensample unto all the states of Zion. Even so. Amen."

In conformity with this injunction the bishops keep an ever-watchful eye on the real and personal property of their flocks, and when money fails do not object to, nay, insist upon, payment in kind. Even of the goods of the new arrivals from Europe a careful inventory is made; and those emigrants who have no worldly goods of their own have money advanced to them by the munificence of the Church, which they have to repay, together with interest, in addition to the tithes. Excommunication in this life and eternal perdition in the next are the penalties held out to those who are remiss or behindhand in their payments. But to keep up the spirits of the people as much as possible under these cir-

cumstances, the ceremony of paying tithes in the tithing-house is considered a fit occasion for songs. The following, taken from an American paper, will give some idea of the exactions of the Mormon Church :—

"TITHING SONG.

[AIR—'*The King of the Cannibal Islands.*']

"Now, male and female, rich and poor,
Who wish to keep your standing sure,
That your salvation may secure,
Come forward and pay up your tithing.
A tenth, that is, and nothing less,
Of all you do or may possess,
In flocks, and herds, and their increase,
With pigs and poultry, ducks and geese—
A tenth, indeed, of all your toil,
Likewise the produce of the soil;
And if you've any wine or oil,
Come forward and pay up your tithing.

CHORUS.

"Then if to prosper you desire,
And wish to keep out of the fire;
Nay, if you to be Saints aspire,
Come forward and pay up your tithing."

Besides all the money thus raised by tithes, appeals are frequently made for charitable objects, as "for the relief of the poor," and large sums accrue to the treasury of the Church under the "law of dedication," by which those who are sent on missions give their property to Brigham Young "on trust"

for the Church. The bishops, then, are appointed more for secular than religious purposes. They are the overseers and jealous guardians of the property of their people in the interests of the Church.

There is not, however, any visible police system, but in reality every Mormon is a detective, ready to pounce upon the unwary Gentile, often without sufficient pretext. The Government at Washington is represented by its judges, and by a fort on the hill-side, whose guns are ever pointed on the city of the saints, and particularly on Brigham Young's house; but the judges are almost powerless, for the police, the juries, and the legislature are made up of Mormons, who evade rather than enter into open conflict with the demands of a power which they cannot meet with positive resistance.

The total number of inhabitants of the Salt Lake city is about 30,000 (of whom 1000 are Gentiles); of Utah territory 130,000. 20,000 of these are men capable of bearing arms, who drill regularly once a week, prepared, if occasion require, to fight openly for their institutions and religion.

Brigham Young, the most absolute monarch on earth, is a man of sixty-eight years of age, with sandy whiskers slightly tinged with grey. He is of the medium height, his lips are firm and slightly compressed, and his features are devoid of sensuality. His manner is very deliberate, and his

conversation opinionated, impressing one with the idea that he is insincere.

The exact number of his wives is unknown even to his friends, but twenty-five "better halves" are usually imputed to him. His most recent wife—his best half—is a girl of eighteen summers, whom he married about eighteen months since. She was divorced from her former husband by the authority of the Church, i. e. Brigham Young, and his preference for her has excited no small amount of jealousy among his other halves.

The amount of Brigham Young's property, like the number of his wives, has never been exactly ascertained, but his real and personal estate is estimated to consist of—

First. City Creek Cañon, a grant by the Legislative Assembly of Utah, a heavily wooded district from which the saints obtain their wood exclusively, every third load going to Brigham's pile; of fine water-power, for four miles of the river; income from this source 34,000*l.* per annum.

Second. The water right to Mill Creek.

Third. A grant of Cache Valley, fifty miles long and fifteen miles in width, the richest and most productive valley in the territory.

Fourth. A grant of Rush Valley, also a large tract of fertile country.

Fifth. A grant of Lone Rock Valley, for ranch and herd ground, an extensive tract.

Sixth. The coal beds in Coal Cañon, San Pete county, Utah.

Seventh. Real estate in Salt Lake city:—Brigham's Block, 83,300*l.*; theatre building, 12,500*l.*; distillery, with the whole Mormon trade, 34,000*l.*; various stores and private residences, 39,000*l.*

Eighth. Four-fifths of Provo city, the second in population and importance in the territory.

Ninth. Sugar plantations in the Sandwich Islands.

Tenth. Cotton farms, woollen mills, and flouring mills.

Eleventh. Cocoonery for the manufacture of silk, with thirty acres of mulberry-trees.

Twelfth. Twelve thousand acres of land in Cash county, for stock-raising purposes.

Thirteenth. Claim against the Union Pacific railroad for work done, in all about 200,000*l.*; of which Brigham will receive 125,000*l.*

Fourteenth. Twenty-five wives in the flesh. The number of his "spiritual wives" is legion. Many female saints are anxious to be sealed to Brigham, in order to be carried "across" by him, and thus have their salvation insured. Brigham kindly seals them to his predecessor, Joseph Smith, for eternity, and to himself for time, and then appoints the bishop of the ward his attorney, by virtue of which appointment the said bishop has the exclusive right to support them.

Fifteenth. Forty-five children.

Sixteenth. Cash in hand. As Brigham is "trustee in trust for the Church," and not accountable to any one for the funds obtained in that capacity, the amount is probably very large; of which a considerable sum is invested in the Bank of England.

Seventeenth. The property of the subjects sent upon "foreign missions," always appropriated by the "Lion of the Lord" during their absence, as we have said before.

Brigham Young deduces his title to the water-power of the territory through grants from the Legislature. In February, 1852, Acts were passed granting to him exclusively the waters of certain streams, and from that day to this every session of the Legislature has added to the number of these grants. The Acts relate in nearly every case to streams whose waters are necessary for the purposes of irrigation, and the settlers through whose lands they flow are compelled to pay rates or abandon their lands. In 1862 the Legislature of the territory passed an Act conveying to Brigham Young and others, under the name of the "Jordan Irrigation Company," the use and control of that river, with authority to construct dams and let the waters "for irrigation, for mills and machinery, and all other lawful purposes," and to make whatever charges they thought proper for such use. They were also empowered to collect a percentage on all

lands which would in their opinion be benefited by the said waters. This, then, is one of the sources whence the King of the Mormons derives a considerable part of his income; the grants of water and land, to which we have alluded above, having been made by a subservient Legislature.

The population of the territory is recruited principally by immigration; for although there are great numbers of children, yet, either from the effects of the climate or by reason of bad constitutions, or more probably from the miserable system of drainage, the majority of them do not arrive at manhood.

Apropos of the effects of the climate of the territory on young children, we may mention that they died in great numbers during the summer of 1869. In one Mormon family two of the nine wives of one husband lost a child each in two successive weeks. The two bereaved women sympathized with one another and lamented their losses with tears, while the other seven wives showed them no sympathy whatever. The husband entered their room one day and, finding these two women in tears, thus addressed them: "Dry up, I say, dry up! the Lord was pleased to give us three children in three weeks last year, and now has taken only two in two weeks, therefore dry up!"

There are very few facilities for education. The free system of education, as tending to subvert the

doctrines of Mormonism, does not obtain here, and the greater portion of the people are too poor to spend fifteen shillings a quarter on education, for it is the policy of the Church to discourage trade and to encourage agriculture, the returns of which are more visible, and from which the tithes are more easily collected. In fact, so jealous is "the Church" of its members, that if any one becomes too rich he is "set apart" for missions, and is compelled to surrender his property into the hands of trustees during his absence.

Much is said by the Mormons, and by many Gentile writers, about the morality of the institution. From what we heard, on good authority, we are very sceptical on this point; nay, the system, although in itself the essence of immorality, is by no means faithfully carried out by the believers in its doctrines in accordance with the first principles as laid down by its founders.

Monogamy, however, is the rule, polygamy the exception among them, for the book of Mormon does not sanction a man marrying more wives than he can support, nor indeed does it directly sanction polygamy at all.

On these points of doctrine a schism has arisen, the Monogamists being led by the two sons of the late Joseph Smith, the Polygamists by Brigham Young.

This is not the first attempt that has been made to throw off the yoke of allegiance to the Church.

The first took place in 1853, under Bishop Gladden, whose followers were called Gladdenites. Several of these were murdered in cold blood, and the rest submitted. The second emanated from one Joseph Morris, in 1860, under whose leadership the "Morrisite war" was carried on, until his death. The apostates of the present day, led by the Smiths, reject polygamy, tithing, the power and policy of Brigham Young, and the secret endowment ritual. These "Josephites" have built churches in Utah, in which they preach down Young and Polygamy. Their numbers are steadily increasing, and amount to 25,000, who are scattered about in the States.

One of the strange features of the institution is the firm belief which many of the women place in its doctrines. Several told us that they constantly urged their husbands to take more wives than one, believing that a woman is the instrument of man's glory in this world and the next.

As to the extinction of Mormonism, whether nature or man is to bring it to an end, we know not. Provided the institution flourish and continue long enough, it is not improbable that the city itself will be swept away by the waters of the lake, which are rising at the rate of eighteen inches annually. Four large rivers flow into the lake, while there is no outlet and no escape for its waters but by evaporation. But it is quite as probable that Mormonism will overflow the whole continent as that the Salt

Lake will overflow Mormondom. An influx of Gentiles in sufficient numbers would swamp them, and cause them either again to seek new homes, or by the pressure of public opinion to renounce polygamy, and thus place them before the law on the same footing as the other religious communities of the country. Or, again, the death of Brigham Young—and he is not immortal—will create a gap which it will be difficult to fill, and this event, coupled with the spread of the Monogamist party, may overthrow the institution. Or, the United States' Government may wipe the Mormons off from the face of the continent by the employment of physical force, or may give them the sovereign rights of a State on the condition that they renounce polygamy. Or, lastly, it is possible for the Government at Washington to employ moral compulsion by removing from official positions in the territory all those who are Mormons in theory or in practice[1].

[1] While we write Congress has passed an Act the purpose of which is to extirpate polygamy by every means in their power from the territory of the United States, and the practical effect of this step must, sooner or later, be the extinction of Mormonism.

CHAPTER XII.

CALIFORNIA.

BETWEEN Uintah and Promontory the line winds round the northern extremity of the Salt Lake, the soil being barren of all vegetation except the sage-brush, which is said to be a specific remedy for ague.

Corinne is the only station of any importance between Uintah and Promontory, for here passengers for the territory of Montana leave the train. A few trellis-work bridges have to be crossed and some steep gradients surmounted, and then the train arrives at Promontory, the terminus of the Union Pacific railroad on the one hand, and of the Central Pacific of California on the other.

Promontory is at present a rising settlement, most of whose inhabitants devote their time and energy to relieving the traveller of all his superfluous cash by inducing him to enter a gambling tent

and play "poker," "California Jack," or "three-card monte."

On account of the rivalry between the two companies, the passengers are usually detained two or three hours at this place, and have to change carriages in order to continue their journey. The country around for 200 miles continues nothing but a barren desert, white with soda, which renders the water bitter and suffocates the passengers, as the train whirls up clouds of impalpable dust in its onward course.

At length, however, the desert with its dust, its sage-brush, and alkalies is left behind. Once again trees and vegetation appear in sight along the banks of the Humbolt river, which runs through the Humbolt Plains. On these plains is the upstart town of Elko, containing about 2500 inhabitants. It has streets and shops, at which every kind of article may be bought; and even boasts of a newspaper. From Elko those who intend to visit the White Pine Mines diverge from the railroad. These mines are about 120 miles south of Elko and east of Virginia city.

For many miles west of Elko the scenery is as monotonous as that through which the train has passed since leaving Echo Cañon.

Reno is the point of divergence from the railroad for those who are desirous of visiting the Comstock Lode on which Virginia city stands.

This city lies on the bare mountain side, where nothing green can be seen for miles. The houses are nearly all of wood; the whole population is about 25,000. The ground on which the city stands is honey-combed in all directions by the mines, and in many places the ground has given way. Here the persecuted Chinaman may be seen toiling both above and below ground, or selling the fuel which he has brought from a distance.

In some parts of Nevada the mining is carried out on the hydraulic system. A large body of water at a great pressure is brought in an iron pipe with a three-inch nozzle and directed by three or four miners at the base of a hill. Gradually undermined, a large mass of ground falls over and is carried down in sluices to the valleys below, where it is sifted and stamped. It is the sand thus washed down which imparts the deep yellow tint to the waters of most of the Californian rivers.

Near Virginia city is Lake Tahoe, nestling amidst the mountain peaks several thousand feet above sea-level. It is estimated that its depth is 1000 feet, yet the water is so transparent that fish can be seen at the bottom moving their fins. The mountains rise 3000 feet abruptly from the bosom of the lake, and the pines dip their branches into its waters.

The next point of any interest or importance after leaving Reno is Boca, where the ascent of the

Sierra Nevada range may be said fairly to commence; and at this place two engines are attached to pull the train up the steep gradients. At intervals along the line the train passes under snow-sheds, which have been built to prevent the passengers being overwhelmed with avalanches. The total length of these sheds is five miles. The great objection to them is that they screen from the passengers' view a great deal of the beauty of the country through which he is passing.

The mountain scenery which the Central Pacific railroad traverses is very grand and imposing. Now the train drags its weary length around the sides of lofty, snow-clad mountains; now nearly at the summit enters a tunnel and emerges on the further side. At one time it crosses ravines on trestle-work, from which one looks down into the depths of cañons hundreds of feet below. At another it traverses valleys of pine forests which extend as far as the eye can reach. The rate of progress along this part of the route is very slow and, as the line frequently winds round the mountain side, the landscape is ever changing, and the traveller has an opportunity of enjoying to the full extent the grandeur of this almost alpine scenery. The highest point which the train reaches on Sierra Nevada range is 7042 feet above the sea, that is about 1700 feet below the highest point of the railroad on the Rocky Mountains.

That which greatly enhances to the traveller the beauty of the mountain scenery of the Nevadas is the remembrance of past ills, and the memory of the barren monotonous country through which the train has passed before it reached the Nevada range with its snow-clad peaks and cloudless sky. But, at all events, no one can fail to appreciate the scenery and the lovely climate which he finds as he enters the golden State.

Arrived at Sacramento, the terminus of the Western Pacific railroad, the traveller is still 125 miles from San Francisco. Sacramento was burnt to the ground a few years ago and is now being slowly rebuilt. It is, nevertheless, a flourishing city of about 20,000 people, with factories, corn-mills, churches, and schools.

To reach San Francisco from this city most persons take the steamers which ply daily on the river. About eighty miles below Sacramento the river of that name is joined by the Josquin, and continues its course to the Bay of Suisin. This bay is connected with that of San Pablo by the Straits of Carquinez. On the right side of the straits is the town of Benicia—the home of Heenan—once the capital of the State, now a small and still decaying place of about 600 inhabitants. In its vicinity are large coal mines which supply the State.

The Bay of San Pablo is about fifteen miles

long and twenty broad, and opens at its further end into the large bay on which San Francisco stands. After steaming for an hour down this bay the passenger at length finds himself on the Pacific coast of the United States, in the golden city of San Francisco.

Twenty five years ago, when the author of "Two Years before the Mast" visited California, he found sand-hills, and a few ravines in which evergreen oaks maintained a precarious existence, on the site where now stands the golden city of San Francisco. Never perhaps was any prophecy so truly fulfilled as that which Dana made so long ago, that on such a barren spot the Queen of the Pacific coast was destined to rise. But in a quarter of a century the industry and perseverance of the Anglo-Saxon race have been able entirely to change the face of nature. Mountains have been levelled and valleys filled up, and water has been brought from a cañon twenty-five miles distant to irrigate the thirsty soil, and supply the wants of the inhabitants.

It is impossible to give an adequate idea of the luxuriance with which every kind of flower, shrub, and weed grows. When once irrigated the soil seems to produce every thing spontaneously. The flowers are especially beautiful, and plants which are shrubs with us, under the cloudless sky and even temperature of this part of the Pacific coast,

become trees—even geraniums are known to reach twelve feet in height.

Those who have never visited San Francisco are apt to imagine that the summer heat is oppressive. It would be so, no doubt, were it not that, however hot the sun may be in the early morning, about 11 a.m. a breeze springs up from the ocean and rushes through the narrow entrance to the harbour known as the Golden Gate, carrying with it even to the mountains a hundred miles away the refreshing moisture of the ocean. The mean annual temperature of San Francisco, in fact, is about 50°, the thermometer seldom rising above 70° or falling below 40°. But this almost perfect climate is not without its disadvantages, for there is a great temptation to over-work, and there is no absolute necessity for rest as there is in the hot summer months of the Eastern States. Consequently it is said that people die suddenly and that insanity is very prevalent.

The great drawback to the city as a residence is that such dense clouds of dust fill the air that even in driving the horses are often hidden from view.

The greater part of the city is built of wood, for the inhabitants live in perpetual fear of earthquakes, and consequently stone buildings are not so safe as the more frail wooden houses. But nevertheless the public buildings are solid and handsome. There are well-stocked libraries and

reading-rooms, and many charitable institutions. Montgomery Street, the business street of San Francisco, has rather a fine appearance, but is so steep that carriages cannot ascend to the upper part of it. The tall chimneys of factories stand out against the sky in every direction, and every article which is needed by the inhabitants, except those made of leather, is manufactured in the city.

On the opposite side of the bay in the suburb of Oaklands all the educational institutions of the country are collected. The working arrangements of the schools are as admirable as any in the Eastern States, and in some respects their system is even superior.

The most interesting part of San Francisco to visit is the Chinese quarter, and particularly their theatre. The Chinese are quiet, sober, and industrious, but nevertheless are too often ill-treated by the white population; when struck they strike not in turn, and when robbed they complain not; fortunately instances of such ill-treatment are not so common as they were a few years ago. They have abandoned nearly all the traditions of their country; they have adopted the European style of dress, have abandoned their pig-tail, and have almost ceased to transport the bodies of the dead back to China. In the lower quarters of the Chinese may be seen gamblers, opium-sellers, and crowds of abandoned women who are brought over in ship-

loads. When these women are in the last stage of illness they are put into a shed with a small allowance of bread and water by their side calculated to last a certain number of days and are then left alone. At the expiration of the given time women come and carry forth the dead or dying body of the woman to the dissecting-rooms of the hospitals.

Their theatre corresponds very much with the inferior class of European theatres. Every one smokes, the actors as well as the audience. The band plays a monotonous tune through the play, but the acting generally is good. These plays are of very great length, the same drama runs on for months, but the part of it acted on any evening is intended to be more or less complete in itself.

No one will think of going to San Francisco without extending his journey as far as the celebrated Yo-Semite Valley and passing, *en route*, the famous trees. Twelve hours after leaving San Francisco by steamer the traveller will arrive at Stockton, whence a stage runs daily to Bear Valley, ninety miles. Dust is the great drawback to this otherwise pleasant trip; sometimes it is so thick as to hide the leading horses from the driver's view. On entering the forests the road becomes barely wide enough for a waggon and winds beneath trees of stupendous size.

After resting at one of the restaurants along the

road for a short time the traveller proceeds onward until he finds himself beneath the shadow of the "Big Trees." To get at the famous trees themselves one has to pass through a long line of sugar-maples, about 200 or 300 feet high, which thus seem to detract from the height of the forest giants.

The *sequoia* grows on the most fertile soil in the world and enjoys the most perfect climate. Nature has done all in her power to develop the tree, and the monster has made the most of its natural advantages. The circumference of the largest of these trees is about ninety-five feet, and its height about 350 feet.

These giants of the forest have few branches; the first two thrust themselves out on either side of the trunk at a height of 120 or 140 feet from the roots, and above these other branches stretch out at varying intervals.

One tree, which has fallen into a state of decay and is hollow, is of sufficient diameter to allow a man to ride through the hollow trunk on horseback, only stooping at the point where he emerges, at which a branch once grew from the main trunk. The wood of these trees is of a reddish-brown colour, and is very light in weight, and the bark is porous and full of fibres. There is one tree named the "Old Maid," which was felled, after twenty-five days' labour, by the joint exertions of three men.

It is fortunate that the ruthless hand of commerce is restrained from injuring or cutting down these noble trees. The Government of the United States strictly preserves them, and has appointed a commission to watch over and protect these venerable forest giants who have already reached 1500 years of age.

The distance from the Big Trees to the Yo-Semite (pronounced *Yo-Semitty*) Valley is about thirty miles, and the route usually taken passes through mountain scenery of a fine order. The first spot whence a view of the valley can be obtained is from a shelving rock which hangs over "Inspiration Point."

The valley is about three-quarters of a mile wide and six or seven long, and winds between cliffs and precipices. A good bird's-eye view of the whole gorge, with its lofty pines, poplars, and oaks 4000 feet beneath sinking to nothingness and looking like little shrubs in the great distance, is obtained from the rock. The various shades of granite standing out amidst the foliage and the ever changing shadows combine in the blending of colour to produce one of the most striking effects ever witnessed.

On the opposite side of the valley is a grand bluff, rising more than 4000 feet abruptly from its base, known as El Capitan. In another direction three rocks, known as "The Brothers," rear their heads in regular order towards the sky, and over

their edges rush silvery streams, disappearing in the green valley in the form of mist long before they reach the ground. Further still to the east the peaks known as the North Dome and the Half Dome stand out against the sky. These names were given to the cliffs on account of their resemblance to cathedral piles with lofty domes.

In the valley many excursions can be made and splendid views obtained of the towering rocks above, and of the numerous waterfalls which hasten over the precipices. Of these the largest is the Yo-Semite Fall, 2500 feet in height and about forty in width, which descends by three or four leaps to the bottom of the valley. When there is an abundance of water the fall has the appearance of an unbroken cataract from the summit to the base of the cliff. The valley runs east and west, so that its climate is very genial; but if the north winds were able to sweep down the gorge the place would be uninhabitable. At its east end the valley divides into three small cañons, each of which abounds in remarkable scenery. In the middle one is the Nevada Fall, which is of no great height, as compared with the others, but has a far larger volume of water.

The Alps have not as many abrupt cliffs as are found in this gorge, but the Yo-Semite is deficient in the glaciers which are one great charm of Swiss scenery. But there are no falls in the European

Switzerland which can compare with those of this American Switzerland, and there are few spots where light and shade and colour are so well blended as in this lovely valley.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE MAMMOTH CAVE TO CHARLESTON.

AFTER returning from the Mammoth Cave to the Memphis and Louisville railroad either at Cave city or Glasgow Junction, the traveller who wishes to see something of the Southern States before beginning his journey back to the North-east will probably "get on board the cars for Charleston," which will carry him through Tennessee, Georgia, and South Carolina, *via* Nashville, Chattanooga, Atlanta, and Augusta.

The distance from Cave city to Nashville is a hundred miles, and the journey will occupy about five hours. The latter is a rising place, the principal city of Tennessee, and chiefly remarkable for its capitol. On reaching this place from the North an Englishman begins to realize for the first time that he is in the Southern States. Negresses, who are rare in the North-east, are seen in abundance with their babies, and there seems to be among the

white portion of the population a very strong feeling of contempt for their coloured brethren. Every white man one meets has probably borne some part in the late struggle for independence, and carries about him for life some mark of the share he took in the strife. The buildings of the city, especially those which line the river, in their shattered appearance bear evident traces of the recent war.

On leaving Nashville by the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad, similar indications of the war at once become visible on every side. Palisades and stockades are passed at short distances from each other. The latter are strong buildings, about twenty feet square, of thick timber loopholed on three sides for musketry, and must form an exceedingly formidable obstacle to the advance of an army not well supplied with artillery. Should there be any one in the car who was actually present at the skirmishes and battles that took place between this district and Chattanooga, as was the case when we passed through it, he will no doubt willingly point out the scenes of the various engagements.

Murfreesborough was the scene of a most bloody battle at the end of 1862, resulting in the defeat of the South. Near this place the entrenchments of the North are passed; three-quarters of a mile further on the train runs through the earth-works

behind which the Confederates vainly hoped to make a stand; a little beyond are the cemeteries in which lie the bodies of the slain,—first that of the Northerners, then that in which the Southerners were buried. After three days' fighting on this spot the Confederates were forced to fall back inch by inch, contesting every step, as far as Chattanooga and Atlanta. All along the line up to the former place the cars continually run past stockades built by the Confederates.

Cowan University, where those of the once wealthy Southern planters who can still afford it send their sons to be educated, lies eighty-seven miles from Nashville, about three miles distant from the station; it is exceedingly popular in the South, though seldom heard of beyond its own district. A little further on is Stevenson Junction; and immediately on leaving this station the train passes for upwards of twenty miles through exceedingly beautiful scenery. The line crosses the Tennessee river, which somewhat resembles the Thames at Richmond on a very much larger scale. The hills on each side of the stream are covered with woods to their summits, and recall to mind the scenery in the valley of Lauterbrunnen in Switzerland, except that in the latter the foliage is of a much more sombre shade. Every now and then a stockade may be observed peeping out from the luxuriant underwood, showing

that the train is still following the line of march of the Southern army in its retreat.

Chattanooga, 150 miles from Nashville, is a small manufacturing town. Now that those whom they formerly compelled to till the soil are no longer under their control, many of the Southerners are turning their attention to manufacturing such agricultural and domestic implements as are in great demand, which the Southern States used formerly to obtain from New England and Baltimore. In the neighbourhood of Chattanooga the Confederates attempted to make a stand, but were here unable successfully to resist the fresh troops that the Federals were able to bring against them in thousands; while the white male population of the South could not stand the drain upon its resources caused by the war, and dared not put arms into the hands of the slaves. A Confederate in Lee's army, while it was in the neighbourhood of Washington, engaged in a hand-to-hand encounter with a soldier in a Federal uniform who, on getting worsted, called out for quarter in broken English. His conqueror, accordingly, made him his prisoner and inquired why he, who was a German, should take part in the war against the South. The latter then explained how he had only three days before landed at New York as an immigrant, how in the course of the evening he had consumed too much lager beer, been taken up for intoxication, and

allowed to go unpunished on condition that he would enlist. He was therefore sent to Washington, put into a uniform, compelled to fight, and now on the third day after entering the country was a prisoner of the Confederates. This shows how the North sustained the vast armies that it kept in the field for so long a time, though this system of recruiting was calculated to produce quantity without regard to the quality of the soldiery. We in England are too apt to throw it in the teeth of the Northerners that they owed their victories to mercenaries; but we must remember that although a large proportion of the men in the Northern armies were foreigners, the best and bravest of the native-born Americans—undergraduates from Harvard, young men of wealth with every luxury which money could procure—gave up all for their country and shared all the hardships of war with the common soldiers. It is pitiable to see in the large cities of the North the many armless sleeves and the maimed bodies of quiet citizens who went out to tear the yoke of slavery from the neck of the negroes in the South and to preserve their country entire.

Atlanta is 138 miles south-east of Chattanooga by the Western and Atlantic railway. This city and the vicinity were the scenes of most terrible encounters between Sherman's victorious army and the Confederates, the latter occasionally ob-

taining some slight advantage, but being finally compelled to retreat within the fortifications of the city itself. Sherman then invested the city and captured it after a six weeks' siege. The city was burnt to the ground; but whether this was done by the invading army or by the Confederates in evacuating the city is doubtful; every American spoken to gives a different account, according to the side he took. The feelings of partizanship colour the accounts which the stranger receives from those with whom he converses, and it is difficult to balance nicely. The South accuse Sherman's army of throwing salt into the wells; but if this really occurred, which seems uncertain, it was probably without the sanction of their general. Each "reb" accuses the Yankee of wanton cruelty during their invasion; each Yankee inveighs against the harsh treatment of his comrades in Southern prisons. It seems certain that during their march through Tennessee and Georgia the invading army committed some fearful outrages; but, at the same time, it must be remembered that that army was largely composed of coloured troops, to whom the Confederates would never give quarter, and these troops probably brought such discredit on the Northern army. As for the terrible sufferings undergone by the inmates of Southern prisons during the war, the fact must be taken into consideration that the army of the South itself was almost

starving, and it was impossible to allow the prisoners' sufficient food while the men whose strength it was of vital importance to sustain were being kept alive by a scanty allowance of vegetables. Many of the young planters who formed the staple of the Southern army that offered so sturdy but ineffectual a resistance to the advance of Sherman, were marching and fighting for weeks without shoes or hats under a burning sun. A Northerner, however, who had a brother in a Southern prison, informed us that when the surgeon ordered him whiskey as medicine it was immediately supplied, although there was but little of it left in store. These outrages on the one side, and enforced privations on the other, have left an irritation against the authors of them (more especially of the former) which is not likely to disappear entirely for many years.

Atlanta is being gradually rebuilt, though in many places the walls of houses alone remain, while a heap of charred rubbish occupies the interior. Now traces of the war are conspicuous in every direction, but probably in a year or two these will have been obliterated by the rebuilding of the city, and the war, as far as the city is concerned, will be simply a matter of history.

Augusta, another large city of Georgia, is 170 miles east of Atlanta on the way to Charleston, containing an arsenal, powder mills, &c., which the

Confederates found extremely useful during the war. The Americans, both North and South, were extremely hard-pressed for necessaries of various descriptions, which their native ingenuity, however, enabled them to overcome. For instance, as all the rags, &c., of which paper is usually manufactured were required to make lint for the armies, material on which to print the newspapers was very scarce; consequently the means were discovered of making paper from wood, and this mode of manufacture is still largely in use in the States.

The animosity of the Southerners towards the Yankees is still as fierce as it has ever been. The former profess to hold the latter in extreme contempt, and many of them seem anxious for a war between America and England, as they think that then they could strike another blow for independence, with a good chance of success. They do not seem to understand the motive of the English in not declaring war against the Yankees immediately after the latter had so impudently taken Mason and Slidell out of an English mail-steamer. The Confederates seem to blame the English considerably for not having taken an active part in the war on their side; in fact the British, as a nation, seem no more popular in the South than they are in the North, though the individual Englishman will probably receive invitations of the

most hospitable description to visit the residence of any planter with whom he may happen to come in contact during his wanderings.

A great cause of irritation against the Yankees in the South is the fact that the negroes have now equal municipal and State rights with their late masters. The result is that the former are able to out-vote the latter at the elections, and many of them are magistrates and in authority; the whites consequently feel somewhat degraded by their enforced obedience to men who were once their slaves. This degradation, as they consider it, the Southerners wrongly attribute to the Yankees, considering that the latter wish to punish them in this manner for their resistance, and do not see that it is the inevitable result of the termination of the disgraceful system of slavery they had so long cherished among them. Had the emancipation of the whole body of slaves been less abrupt, it would probably have been more beneficial for all parties, as the freedmen would have been gradually absorbed by the North, or have continued as paid labourers of the masters whose property they had previously been.

Charleston is a day's journey from Augusta by the South Carolina railroad through the State of that name. The cars run through fields of cotton, a low dark-green plant, with its white flower at the top resembling a small piece of wool. The stations

on this line are rough, especially in the refreshment department. When the train stops for dinner or tea, the traveller has usually to go into a long, low whitewashed room, with tables on each side on which are spread the delicacies—not as a rule of a very appetizing order—intended for his consumption in the short time allowed by the railroad companies. Over each table swing slowly backwards and forwards several frames of wood, with long paper fringes, all worked by one string. They resemble punkahs on a small scale, and are intended to keep the flies from settling on the viands.

Charleston is the capital city of South Carolina and took the most prominent part in the war of any Confederate town. Like New York, it is built on a neck of land at the junction of two small rivers. It has an exceedingly fine harbour, in which here and there are rocks projecting from the water on which small forts have been built. By far the largest of these is Fort Sumter, against which the first shot of the war was fired in 1861. It lies six miles down the harbour from the town, of which it is the most interesting feature. Sailing-boats run down to the fort in a short time, and are the most pleasant means of reaching it. The fort is square and, at the commencement of the war, mounted 120 guns in two tiers. The brickwork of three of the sides was almost entirely knocked away by the Federal cannon, and there are huge

holes in the fourth where heavy shot had struck the masonry. The garrison had to repair, under cover of the darkness, to the best of their ability, with earth and fascines, what their enemies destroyed during the day. Water and provisions were brought out to them by night in small boats from the city, there being no other means of procuring fresh water at the fort. These boats took back the bodies of those who had been killed during the day for burial in the city. Five guns, the only ones left in position out of 120 at the evacuation, still remain commanding the channel into the harbour. The garrison lived in rooms they had made as nearly bomb-proof as possible by heaping earth all round them. During the siege these men must have endured fearful sufferings. Some were obliged to keep a constant look-out by night as well as by day to prevent Federal gun-boats passing the fort; and, at the same time, to take care not to fire into any blockade-runner by mistake; while others had to repair, with earth taken from the square inside the fort, the injury done to the fortifications by the enemy's cannon. It is wonderful how they were able to hold out as long as they did; but they were obliged to give up the defence, and evacuate the place as soon as communication with the shore was cut off by the Federals. Now a sergeant and two privates are left in sole charge of the fort.

The trade and business of Charleston, which

was of course put a stop to by the war, is beginning to revive, but Savannah will hereafter supply the place which Charleston held before the war as the principal port of the Southern States on the Atlantic. On all sides, however, there still remain traces of the severe bombardment it underwent from the Federal gun-boats, which, though obliged to lie beyond Fort Sumter six or seven miles from the town, caused terrible damage to the public and other large buildings. Every few yards a huge hole is seen in some wall or steeple through which one of the ponderous shot for which the American navy is so famous has passed. One building facing the harbour once adorned with a fine row of Corinthian columns in front, has had them all broken, and now presents the appearance of quite a picturesque ruin. One of the steeples, at which much of the fire was directed in consequence of its being so conspicuous from a distance, must have borne a charmed existence, for it was not struck once. The inhabitants became used to the bombardment, and at last began to treat the arrival of a shot in the town, or even in their own dwellings, with the contempt proverbially bred by familiarity.

A large amount of cotton is carried from Charleston to New York for shipment to Europe. The voyage is pleasant and occupies about sixty hours under favourable circumstances. The boats are large and powerful, and the accommodation good,

though of course it will not bear comparison with that of the ocean lines of steamers to Europe. One of these ships, the "Charleston," was built for this line, but on completion, in consequence of its extreme swiftness, was chartered as a gun-boat by the Federals with a special view to the prevention of blockade-running. On the conclusion of the war it became a passenger steamer between New York and Charleston. It is said that a direct line of steamers between Liverpool and Charleston is about to be started, in order to save the expense of transhipping cotton at New York for conveyance to Europe. When this happens the Charleston and New York steamers will have comparatively very little cotton to carry, but probably, irrespective of it, there is sufficient traffic in goods and passengers for them still to pay a dividend to their owners.

It is not advisable for an Englishman, unless proof against the effects of great heat, to visit Charleston between May and October. The sun has tremendous power here during the day. In the best hotel (the Charleston) there are double-doors to every bedroom, the outer one of lattice, the inner one an ordinary door. The last thing to do before getting into bed in hot weather is always to set the latter wide open. The beds are protected against mosquitoes and sand-flies, as far as possible, by gauze curtains. One of the negro waiters, during meals, walks about the room waving over the table

a huge brush made of peacocks' feathers, in order to mitigate the nuisance of the immense swarms of flies, which probably give one a fair idea of what the Egyptians may have suffered in the third plague.

Facing the harbour between the two rivers is a fine promenade, much resembling the marine parade of our English seaside towns. The town was formerly celebrated as a watering-place, but since the war very few families have visited it.

New York may be reached from Charleston by railroad as well as by steamboat, but the former route is by no means more expeditious than the latter.

The railroad passes through Wilmington, Weldon, and Petersburg to Richmond. Wilmington is the chief commercial city of North Carolina, and is built on the banks of Cape Fear river at a distance of about twenty miles from its mouth. There is nothing attractive in the city or its surroundings, and no scenes of interest except Fort Fisher, which was bombarded and captured in the early part of the last year of the war, and led to the occupation of Petersburg and Richmond by the victorious Federals.

From Wilmington to Richmond the railroad passes through many of the great battle fields of the war; but around Petersburg the fiercest struggles took place. The fortifications around it are the

main points of interest now, for the city itself suffered severely, and the buildings are for the most part in ruins. At two of the principal forts in the neighbourhood the lines of the two armies were so near that the rival soldiers used to "chaff" one another. These forts acquired the names they bear, which are scarcely fit for repetition in polite society, by being so much exposed to the enemy's fire that they were considered "hot" quarters.

The earthworks still exist, in a more or less perfect state, from Petersburg to Richmond; for here it was that for three years the Northern armies were baffled in their attempts to capture the Confederate capital, and about these fortifications it is computed that a million lives were sacrificed in the same time.

From Petersburg a journey of about twenty miles brings us to Richmond, the chief city of Virginia and the ex-capital of the Confederate Government, which is built on the banks of the James river. The brow of the hill is crowned with the state house, before which stands an equestrian statue of Washington, who fortunately did not live to see the day when his own beloved Virginia endeavoured to destroy the union which he had so wisely built up.

There are no public buildings of interest, and the private houses, although of large dimensions, are very dilapidated. The main street has been rebuilt since the war, but the amount of business

transacted appeared to be insignificant. The negroes seemed to outnumber the white people, for crowds of them filled the streets and sat on every step basking in the sun ; but yet the white population monopolized all the departments of skilled labour, and probably will continue to do so.

In the James river, about a mile from the city of Richmond, lies Belle Island, the prison of the common soldiers of the North who were captured by the Confederates. The treatment these poor men met with was disgraceful : huddled together like pigs, in summer dying of sunstrokes, in winter having their fingers and toes frost-bitten, while on the summit of the nearest hill frowned two large cannon ready, as our guide informed us, at a moment's notice, if any should have attempted to escape, to blow the "Yanks" to atoms.

On the banks of the river near this island is Holywood Cemetery, in which many of the rebel soldiers who died around Richmond are buried. Nature has done much to make the burying-ground beautiful to the eye, but very little attention seems to have been bestowed on the graves of the men who fell in the war. We can only imagine that this disorder is owing to the want of means, and not of respect on the part of the Southerners for their dead soldiers. Libby prison, at the opposite end of the city, was, *par excellence*, the prison for the captured officers of the Northern army. It was before

the war a tobacco factory; and during the war the scene of shameful cruelties by the Southerners towards their prisoners; as well as that of the escape of sixty officers, who with their hands dug their way out under the walls of the building.

During our sojourn in Richmond we went over a tobacco factory in which we followed the dried leaves of the plant through all its transformations. All the men engaged in rolling and pressing the tobacco were negroes, who, as freedmen, fail to earn as much working all the week as they did when slaves in extra hours. The owner of a large plantation informed us that he is better off now than he was ten years ago. He has no longer to provide for the old, young, and infirm negroes. The slave-quarters are still available on his plantation, and he can procure able-bodied men without difficulty at 1*l.* 16*s.* or 2*l.* a week, in addition to their board and lodging. Many of the planters have been compelled to sell part of their land in order to obtain sufficient capital to work the remaining part. We gathered that land is to be bought at a reasonable price, and that the owners are willing to sell to any one except the "carpet-baggers" of the North.

We should add that the traveller will find every comfort at the Spottiswoode Hotel, which is conducted on the American plan at a charge of about 12*s.* per day.

A negro funeral is rather an interesting ceremony.

We went one day to the Methodist church (of which the deceased negro was a member)—a miserable wooden hovel—and for half an hour listened to the funeral service. The room was filled with negroes; the coffin was placed in the midst and covered with flowers; the officiating negro read out a verse from a hymn, which the congregation sang afterwards. The voices of the negroes were very sweet and melodious, but there was no harmony in the tune they sang; in fact, each had a tune of his own. As the only white persons present, we were honoured with a seat by the side of the minister—an aged negro with white hair and spectacles—so that we had an opportunity of observing the congregation. The sermon was very short and preached in the English which negroes indulge in. We were impressed with the attention and serious faces of the congregation, in fact there was scarcely a dry eye among them all.

On leaving Richmond for the North the traveller has the choice of two routes, either by the Orange, Alexandria and Manassas railroad, which passes through the battle field of Bull's Run, or by the line which runs through Fredericsburg, seventy miles distant, and thence to Acquia Creek on the Potomac.

By taking the latter route the traveller will pass over many a skirmish ground and along the line of battle between Grant and Lee in the Fredericsburg

campaign, and he will also see from the carriage windows the farm-house in which Stonewall Jackson breathed his last after the battle of Chancellorsville. In fact, this town was assailed during that battle first by Stoneman, and afterwards by Kilpatrick and Sheridan, but without success. The sight of the cemeteries in all directions along the line of railroad is very pitiable. Square enclosures on the hill-sides and in the valleys, containing the bodies of 5000 soldiers with the white tombstones in regular lines, meet the eye of the traveller as he sits in the car. Here and there in the now uncultivated fields a mound indicates that some poor soldier fell there, and was buried where he fell on the field of battle.

At Acquia Creek on the Potomac a steamer meets the train and conveys the passengers up the river—past Mount Vernon, the home of Washington—to Washington. Before reaching Washington, however, the steamer calls at Alexandria, the slave mart of Virginia in the days before the war. From the river a fine view of the public buildings of the city of Washington is obtained—the white marble dome of the capitol and the White House and treasury buildings.

Arrived at the seat of Government, the traveller will have some difficulty in the selection of an hotel, for Washington is ill provided in this respect. The largest is Willard's, the best the Ebbett House.

Washington has been well said to be a "city of magnificent distances," and, better still, a "city of magnificent intentions," for there are miles of fine streets laid out without a single house on either side, spacious squares without any buildings facing them, and a splendid monument to Washington which is intended, when finished, to be a column 350 feet high, rising from the midst of a circular building, but at present it has stopped short at 200 feet high, and the Americans seem hardly disposed to contribute the remainder of the necessary funds.

Washington is a mere political city, and when Congress is not in session is as deserted as an English university during the long vacation. Enterprise in building has never been brought into play because there is a lurking suspicion that the seat of Government will be removed to a more central position with respect to the Continent. The Government buildings and the capitol are well worthy of a visit. They are nearly all built of white marble in the Grecian style, with columns at every face. These columns while we were there were draped with festoons of black crape, in mourning for a deceased secretary of state. This on wet days had an exceedingly curious effect.

From the dome of the capitol a fine view is obtained of the surrounding country. In the wings of this building are the Senate Chamber and the House of Representatives, but they are scarcely

worthy of notice. The ceilings are low and the ornamentation tawdry. The Rotunda, with its dome, is very fine, and on its walls are painted eight frescoes illustrating scenes of American history, in some of which the English appear to disadvantage. Underneath one of the paintings on the staircase we remember noting the proud inscription—

> "The boundless Continent is ours—
> No little Ithaca confines our powers."

The Library of Congress occupies a place in the centre building; and although the greater part of the collection has been twice burnt, yet it still occupies the foremost place in the number of its volumes among the libraries of the New World.

About a mile from the capitol at the opposite end of the city is the executive mansion, or White House as it is popularly called. It is built of white marble, but as a mansion is not worthy of notice, still less as the home of the President of a great Republic. Near the White House are the treasury buildings, where there is an extensive staff of female clerks, and war office.

The patent office is well worth a visit; it is the depository of models of inventions for which patents have been granted or applied for. It therefore illustrates more types of American genius than are to be found in any other building in

the States. The models are not preserved with care, for they are brought out in baskets-full and deposited at the feet of the visitor for inspection. We observed an intending patentee sitting in the midst of a large number of little models of inventions of a particular kind, which were being brought to him from the glass cases in a kind of huge clothes-basket by a couple of sturdy negroes. When he wished to examine a model that lay a little beyond his reach, he scrupled not to trample on the intervening ones. Besides these models this building contains a certain number of national relics, such as Benjamin Franklin's printing-press, Washington's wardrobe, and presents made to officials of the United States, which the laws forbid them to keep for their private use, if received by them in their official capacity.

The Smithsonian Institute, which was founded by an Englishman "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," is built of sandstone, and contains a lecture-room, a handsome library, and a museum of natural history. It is situated in the centre of a small park.

After leaving Washington on his journey northward, the next city of importance which the traveller will pass through is Baltimore, about forty miles distant. The best hotels are Barnum's and the Eutaw House.

Baltimore has been well described as the "city of

monuments." The chief structures of the kind are Washington's Monument, Battle Monument (erected to those who fell in defence of the city in 1814) and the Armistead Monument. There are some fine open squares in the city and a few public buildings of pretension, among which we may mention the exchange, the institute, and the city hall. The majority of the inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion, consequently churches belonging to that denomination abound. There are also many literary and scientific institutions, the Peabody Institute among the number.

Through-carriages run on the railroads between Washington and New York, but in passing through Baltimore they are detached from the engine and a team of eight or ten mules draws each carriage through the streets from one railroad station to the other, the driver blowing a bugle at intervals to warn foot-passengers and all vehicles to make way for him.

The scenery on the route between Baltimore and Philadelphia is comparatively tame and uninteresting. Many a skirmish took place during the war of the rebellion along the line of the railroad, which has thus acquired an historical interest. At Havre-de-Grace the train crosses the Susquehanna river on a light and airy wooden bridge about two miles in length, which bends and quivers under the weight of the cars.

Philadelphia is the second city in population, and the first in extent, in the United States. It is estimated that as compared with New York its population is one-third less, but that it numbers at least one-third more houses. This statement alone will account for the air of neatness and order which reigns every where, and the general well-to-do appearance of the inhabitants, apart from the fact that the traditions of the Quakers who first settled there still retain some hold on their descendants.

Very few of the inhabitants, however, still wear the costume which their Quaker ancestors adopted. Occasionally one sees the stiff collar and the broad-brimmed hat and hears questions answered with the antiquated yea and nay. But these are rare exceptions; the stranger will not be likely to notice any differences between the manners and customs of the Philadelphians and those of the people of other cities; he will probably be struck with the very large number of beautiful women—for this peculiarity the Quaker city has acquired a reputation among the cities of the New World.

It is said, moreover, that Philadelphia is the most comfortable city in the States for a person to live in or to die in. It is the best to live in, because the best-stocked markets in the New World are here. Terrapins, soft-shell-crabs, canvas-back ducks (which acquire their peculiar flavour from feeding on

the wild celery of the Chesapeake), reed-birds, and fruits of every kind are always to be had in their seasons. It is the most comfortable city for aged people, for every person seems happy and contented; there is none of the bustle and excitement which is a feature of the streets of Boston and New York; and the climate is mild and pleasant.

This city has furnished a model on which the newer cities of America have been built. The streets which run north and south cut others which run east and west at right angles, so that the land is thus divided into square plots. The streets which run north and south are *numbered* from the first up to the fifty-fourth, while those which run east and west have *names* thus:—

Market, Arch, Race, Vine,
Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine.

Market Street dividing the whole city into two parts, the north and the south; so that, for example, South Third Street would be that part of Third Street which lies to the south of Market Street. Again, the space between any two parallel streets is supposed to be occupied by fifty houses on either side, which are numbered on a decimal system. Thus 16.09 Arch Street would be the fourth house in Arch Street, between Sixteenth and Seventeenth Streets, while 25 North Third Street would be the

twelfth house in Third Street north of Market Street. The system is simple, although on paper it may appear complicated, and it is proposed to adopt the same arrangement in New York and Chicago. The only question is whether abstract numbers are not more difficult to remember than names.

The principal hotels in Philadelphia are the Continental, Girard, and La Pierre, of which the former is the largest and most frequented.

The public buildings are numerous. "Independence Hall," in which the declaration of independence was signed, is a small room in the old state house, and contains a statue of Washington, who was "first in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," and a large bell which, in ringing out the news of independence cracked in an ill-omened manner.

Girard College (a white marble building resembling the Parthenon at Athens on a larger scale) was founded in 1833 by a Frenchman, whose name it bears, "for the gratuitous instruction and support of destitute orphans," of whom 500 are educated there.

The state penitentiary well deserves a visit. It is built in the form of an octagon and resembles a spider's web, in that the cells extend on either side of long corridors from the centre to the outside walls. In this central room sits a warder who, by merely turning on his chair, is able to command a

view of all the cells. The system is no longer *solitary* (as it was when Dickens wrote his "American Notes"), but *separate* confinement only is enforced. The prisoners are taught trades, but their labour is not remunerative. There is a well-stocked library, of which two "good-conduct prisoners" are the librarians.

A park 2000 acres in extent is being laid out along the banks of the Schuylkill, which for natural beauty far surpasses the Central Park of New York. In fact, the neighbourhood of Philadelphia abounds in fine natural scenery. From the Fairmount water-works a commanding view of the lovely Schuylkill and of the Wissahickon, a smaller and tributary stream, is obtained. Laurel Hill is perhaps the most attractive cemetery in the States. It is "located" on the steep banks of the Schuylkill near its falls, and art and money have done what nature omitted to do. One of the pleasantest tours from Philadelphia which the traveller can take into the interior of the State is by the Catawissa railroad, which runs along the ridges of the mountains for 120 miles to Williamsport and the mining districts. Brandywine Creek on the Delaware is also well worth a visit.

Between Philadelphia and New York there is no scenery of interest. The journey occupies three hours, and the line passes through the swamps of the State of New Jersey as one approaches New

York. The railroad has its terminus in Jersey city on the opposite side of the Hudson river from New York, but ferry-boats ply every few minutes between the station and the wharves of New York.

CHAPTER XIV.

HINTS FOR EMIGRANTS.

IT is undoubtedly true that the labouring man materially benefits himself and his family by emigrating from the over-peopled Old World to the New, inasmuch as in the latter wages are higher and there is still a vast field open for settlement in the fertile lands of the Western States. We propose, then, briefly to point out, as far as we can, the advantages which labourers in the New World have, the present state of the labour markets, and the best fields for emigrants.

The great privilege of a working man in America is the fact that a good and gratuitous education is offered to his children. His sons and daughters often sit side by side with those of the wealthiest merchants, nor do the teachers make any distinction of persons. We had pointed out to us in one of the primary schools of Boston the little

son of a wealthy merchant sitting at the next desk to the child of a rough Irishman. There is no excuse for ignorance where all can obtain a good education at so small a cost. For this reason the American artisan, having gone through a training of a practical nature from his earliest years, is fitted for any employment in life.

The skilled native-born artisan of the New World is not so well informed as our own. The foreman in an American factory is usually a man of experience, who has risen by slow degrees and acquired his position by superior knowledge and intelligence; but in England, on the contrary, he is too often a mere youth to whom two years' training at a lathe is thought to give sufficient experience to fit him for superintending large and important works, whereas it is obvious that the foreman ought to be able to point out to his men the neatest and quickest way of working.

In America the artisan has, no doubt, greater opportunities of getting on, as more avenues to success lie open before him and are less crowded. "Technical education" is plentifully supplied in America, and working men avail themselves more readily of the privileges thus afforded than they do with us. The mechanics' and literary institutes of America are perhaps not much superior to ours, but they are much better attended.

In the large factories which we visited at Law-

rence, we were told that the majority of *employés* are of English parentage, and even natives of England.

All the skilled labour is performed by English workmen, who are but too willing to initiate their American fellow-workers into the mysteries of their trade; and then, having imparted their knowledge, are often told by their employers that their services are no longer required. In starting any new works there is usually a demand for English artisans, but as soon as possible they are dispensed with. So much for the protectionists of the United States and their views, when we find in large factories, whose owners are strongly opposed to free trade, that the majority of the *employés* are English-born.

But in all the factories which we visited in the New World there appeared to us to be more comforts for those engaged than we usually find in England. The library and reading-room attached to these larger factories are well furnished with a good selection of books of every description, and all the latest newspapers and periodicals, home and foreign.

California is undoubtedly the paradise of the artisan. There is still a large demand for skilled labour in that State; the wages are very good and are paid in gold, and, moreover, food is cheap and abundant. A carpenter or blacksmith there can earn four and five dollars a day in gold (from 16*s.*

to 20*s.*), but these are exceptionally high wages, and are only to be obtained in the large cities where there is plenty of work to be found. The average rate of wages would not be more than two-thirds as much. California is said not to be over-crowded, yet on the trains coming East we saw many families of working men returning to Chicago and St. Louis, unable to find employment in San Francisco. The Chinese monopolize much of the labour-field of California; and it is the antagonism of races which tends to promote the growth of trades' unions in America. The Irish and Germans combine against the native-born American, the Chinese and negroes against the Irish.

To enable the working men to find employment, and to bring them in contact with the employers of labour, "exchanges" have been formed which are found to work well, for the wealthy citizens subscribe to their support, as it is for their interest to obtain a regular and increased supply of labour. By this agency in a few months more than 1800 general labourers found employment in California at wages varying from thirty to fifty dollars a month (in gold), with board and lodging—and, besides, they are able to get ten per cent. interest on all their savings.

In America almost every trade has its society whose members are rapidly increasing in numbers, but there is not perhaps as much combination and

organized cohesion among the members as there is in the English trade-unions.

These trade societies of America are conducted as ours, with presidents, councils, and secretaries, but mix much more in politics than ours do—nay, a National Labour Congress has met recently, one of whose propositions is to establish a new platform irrespective of Democracy or Republicanism.

This labour question is one of the most difficult and most important of the present day in the United States, as in England. The Labour Congress met to make reforms which were much needed; but its manner of solution is incongruous. The platform which it laid down is as follows:—

(1) This congress is opposed to Chinese labour and Chinese immigration, on the ground that the importation of coolies is merely a revival of the slave trade, as their immigration is not voluntary, but is merely a means of cheapening labour.

(2) It advocates the payment of the Government debt in greenbacks, and not in gold, but is opposed to repudiation.

(3) It opposes what it describes as "land monopoly," that is, favours an agrarianism which will compel the Government to furnish land to all who want it.

(4) It advocates the eight-hour law—a law passed by the Government in the interest of the working men, to prevent their being compelled to

work for more than eight hours a day. As may be supposed, this law is found to work badly. It was adopted in the Government offices, but had to be abandoned, because other firms got ten hours' work done daily.

(5) It would *fix* the percentage of profits to be earned by capital, and abolish "money serfdom."

(6) It proposes a readjustment of the tariff for the purposes of protection, for it is found by experience that many trades suffer very much from the high protection duties. This is especially the case in ship-building. The price of labour is so high in the States that their builders cannot compete with the English. And another reason for the inability of American builders to compete with those of other countries is that as much work is not performed now in a day as formerly. The Special Commissioner of the Revenue, Mr. Wells, has illustrated this fact recently. While conducting his inquiries into the burdens that weigh on American industry, he sent out circulars bearing on this question, and from the answers which he received it appears that about one-third less work is performed in a day now than formerly, and that this same feature is observable in the West as well as in the East.

The last three points on which this congress took its stand are demands for the funding of the national debt at a low rate of interest; for the

establishment of a working-man's political party to control legislation and to put their friends in office; and for equal pay for work equally well done by *women*, and equal opportunities and rights for them in every field of enterprise.

Besides these points, this Labour Congress advocated the abolition of convict labour and of the feudal laws of inheritance, and attributed all the pauperism and crime of the large cities to the low wages.

Such is briefly an account of the demands of the National Labour Congress which held its session at Philadelphia in September, 1869. It is the beginning of one of those combinations which are daily assuming such formidable dimensions in the United States, and, like the railroad monopolies, will require all the energy of the Government to control and check the growing evil.

The agricultural labourer is undoubtedly benefited and his condition bettered by emigrating to the New World. For skilled labour, as we have said, there is not much demand, or rather the supply is in excess of the demand; but in the unsettled parts of the Western States there is still a large field unoccupied, and one in every way adapted for those who have been brought up in the country in England. Supposing that an emigrant "squats" on some part of the fertile prairies of Colorado or Kansas, he will be entitled to 160 acres of land, which he will

hold free of rent, and will not even have to pay the purchase-money of 4*s.* an acre until the Government throw the land into the market, which may not happen for many years, so that in the meantime he ought to have saved money enough to purchase the farm which he has brought under cultivation.

To men of the same class the Southerners are now offering their lands without money and without price, on condition that they continue to reside on and cultivate them for five years, and have no dealings with the coloured people; but this last condition is one which will evidently have to be relaxed or abrogated. Here, then, is a fine field for emigration open to Europeans of the farming class, for they will be put into possession of good and fertile land, and will be brought into contact with a race their equals, it is true, in political rights, but their inferiors by nature.

An agricultural labourer can always find work and three times as much pay as he gets in England. In five years, as we have said, he can be the proprietor of a farm. In Iowa there are many farmers who will build cottages and lend cattle and seed to their labourers. The class of small tenant-farmers which has sprung up in this way is very numerous, and they are able in a very short time to save money enough to emancipate themselves from their landlords, who then seek for fresh labourers.

But these are the advantages which fall in the

way of emigrants, and to these there are corresponding disadvantages. In proportion as the wages are higher than in England, the price of living is greater. Rents of houses are very high, and the houses poor except in Philadelphia. In New York, St. Louis, and Chicago, the working-class live in dens—wooden shanties—as unhealthy and squalid as any in the worst parts of London. Small houses such as our artisans live in are not to be obtained in these cities without paying twice as much rent; and for a single room in the worst quarters as much as two and a half dollars (9*s.* 6*d.*) a week is demanded.

All the necessaries of life, too, are very expensive. Anthracite coal sells for 30*s.* per ton, and "soft" or bituminous coal for 20*s.* per ton; and beef is sold at eighteenpence a pound in the cities. Clothing is very dear indeed, being about three times as expensive as it is in England; and, besides, all the labouring class dress better than they do with us.

The labouring men of the New World do not spend their earnings at the beer-shop or in the bar-room, as too many of ours do, but they share them with their wives and families. Drunkenness is an almost unknown vice, especially among the labouring class: in fact, during our sojourn in the States, we do not remember ever having seen a drunken man or a beggar. The Maine Liquor Law may have con-

tributed to bring about this good result, and the Boston Prohibitory Measure may have borne some fruit; but, after all, these laws are merely local in their agency and influence. The working classes in the New World are more "pious" than our own. Nearly every one belongs to some denomination, whether he be a Methodist, Baptist, Congregationalist, Episcopalian, or Universalist; and the majority, or at all events a respectable minority, attend Divine service on Sundays.

The best fields for settlement for agricultural labourers are in Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, Colorado, and in Northern California. It is true that they will have to work much harder than they would in the old country. In the New World there are no Saturday half-holidays, and during the working hours the overseer keeps a sharp watch on his men and stirs up the loiterers. A carpenter whom we knew in New York assured us that he had not taken a day's holiday for twenty years, and yet every Sunday this same man might be seen at church, listening to Ward Beecher. And Mr. Coningsby also illustrates the incessant hard work to which the labouring class is subject in the United States. He says, "I was told, by more than one English navvy whom I found at work on American railways, that they are more driven and have to work harder in the States than in England. 'They don't swear at yer so much as

our gangers does at home, but they've got a quiet way o' continually shoving yer on like, till it almost breaks yer 'art to keep up to the work,' said one of these to me. Another informed me that in breaking up new ground there was a system of picking out the very strongest man of the gang, and putting him to work in front, while the next strongest was selected for the rear, and then urging on the ones between with this reasonable and polite reminder, 'Come, gentlemen, come, come! You are letting So-and-So walk away from you; he will lose himself if we don't keep a little nearer to him.' And to those further back, 'Come, come, boys! See how you are hindering So-and-So; he can't get on at all for you!'"

The course which emigrants take on landing in the United States seems to depend on their nationality. The Irish remain where they land and crowd on the wharves and docks of the Eastern cities. They like to live huddled together and, either for want of information or means, do not press Westward, but look for employment at once, the men as day labourers, the women as domestic servants. The Germans, on the contrary, who now flow into the great Republic in larger numbers than the Irish, usually go to seek farms in the West. They arrive in families or companies from the same locality, and bring their furniture with them and all the necessary implements of husbandry. The

Germans are most numerous in St. Louis, Chicago, Buffalo, Cincinnati, and the Western cities, where the traveller will observe almost as many German as American names.

The Germans are a plodding, industrious race, who practise the philosophy of studying to be quiet and doing their own business. Their language is of course the great obstacle to this powerful minority—a minority which now equals, if not exceeds, the Irish in number—mixing much in the politics of the country of which they are so integral a portion. During the last year about 390,000 emigrants have landed from Europe on the shores of the United States, and 7,166,152 acres of the public domain were disposed of and divided into 60,000 farms, fully one half of which were settled under the Homestead and Free Grant Act; the exodus of the native population of Lower Canada has exceeded 80,000 during the same period. If we reckon the value of each emigrant to the country at 100*l.*, we can see what an enormous increase this flood of immigration is to its wealth. And as the immigration appears to be assuming larger and larger proportions every year, attempts are being made to form colonies from those emigrants who land in New York, in the hope that the poorer class of new-comers will escape from the over-crowded Eastern cities.

Of the Canadas, as a field for emigrants, we know

but little. The great disadvantage of the whole of that country is the long and severe winters of seven months' duration, and the consequent enforced idleness of many classes of labourers, and all intending emigrants should take this fact into consideration. Even Chicago during the winter months is crowded with men seeking employment, whom the weather has driven from the farms on the prairies; for all the operations of agriculture are performed between the months of April and October, and during the other six months the farmers are visiting their friends, and the labourers are compelled to seek employment elsewhere. It is computed that no less than 20,000 men of this class sought refuge and work in Chicago last winter. And, generally speaking, the winters of Canada are much longer and more severe than in the United States. In the province of Upper Canada the snow is frequently eight or ten feet deep, and the thermometer twenty or thirty degrees below zero; the soil, too, is poor and barren. Lower Canada can hardly be said to be settled yet, except around Niagara and along the shores of Lake Ontario. There is a great tract of country in the west and north-west stretching from the northern shores of Lake Superior along the Red river to the base of the Rocky Mountains. This district is about 3000 miles from east to west, and 1400 from north to south, an area larger than European Russia, and equal to it in the value of its

soil. North of Minnesota, near the boundary-line, Indian corn will ripen, and potatoes have never, during five years' observation, been cut by the frost; but the temperature round Lake Superior is very low indeed (40° in July), and this, added to the general elevation of the surrounding country, renders the winter's cold very severe.

Along the Red river section of country the depth of snow seldom exceeds eighteen inches, and dealers in stock winter their cattle at large in the prairies (where there are clumps of trees), and find sufficient food not only to support but even to fatten them. In this district, where the winters are much colder than those of Quebec, the summer is sufficiently hot to ripen melons and Indian corn. The great advantages of this district to settlers is the combination of wood and prairie—the former for building and fuel, the latter for rearing stock without first incurring the expense of "clearing." It is only recently—since the cession of the Hudson's Bay territory to the dominion of Canada—that this great prairie country has been thrown open to settlers, for the wooded lands further east are not as desirable as prairie for settlement, and consequently the tide of immigration has flowed through Canada into the western prairies of the United States. What is needed is a line of communication with the lakes by railroads or canals, by which markets may be formed for the produce of the soil;

and this same need was long ago foreseen and partially provided for in the United States. The climate of the countries bordering on the Pacific coast north of San Francisco is probably the finest in the world, and within this region there are many millions of acres still unoccupied, only waiting for the hand of man to convert the wilderness and uncultivated prairie into smiling corn-fields.


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